MANAGING PUBLIC PERSONNEL SYSTEMS
A COMPARATIVE PERSPECTIVE

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Foreword

The managing of personnel is one of the most crucial and complex problems in the variegated field of administrative management. It is an area where, in certain ways, the frontiers of private or business administration and what is popularly known as the public administration converge. The two are an integral part of society and must reflect its compulsions and aspirations. The maximisation of resources is the basic motive of all countries and governments, in conformity with the aims and objectives the people and the political system identify and place before them. But it is the uniqueness of the human resource that while it has an instrumental value, it constitutes a fundamental value too. Any society places a great value on the development of its human potential for larger social good, but it is a well developed human fund in terms of administrators, managers and the workforce of different kinds, which help to run and reinforce the governmental machinery and the economic system. The significance of the personnel system has direct bearing on the evolving organisational designs and structures. The soundness of preparation and motivation of the men must match the machine which they are required to man and run in an environment of change, competitiveness, people's expectation and political articulation. It is in this broad context that the present volume by Dr. S.P. Verma and Dr. S.K. Sharma assumes significance. It provides an analytical survey of the evolution as well as of the important issues which are apparent in the personnel systems of more than twenty countries.

The authors have made a comparative study of the personnel system as prevailing both in the developed as well as the developing countries. While extensive documentation exists

about the administration of personnel systems in the developed countries like the USA, the UK, Canada, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Japan and Australia, it is not always readily available to the students of public administration because of the constraints of either language or logistics. Besides, the material is usually of a descriptive nature and the comparative focus is not so evident. The problem is much more acute in respect of the developing countries which are in the process of exploration and experimentation in this important area of public administration. In many of them, reports and documents have been prepared by the concerned governmental bodies, foreign experts, and even by international agencies. But again manifold limitations operate. The authors have discussed the operational systems of several countries of Africa and Asia. Even here events may have overtaken the system as it has happened in one of the Middle East countries. It has not been possible to include within the ambit of the study some of the developing countries from Latin America. As regards the developed countries, there are some pronounced omissions, however anxious the authors may have been to discuss them too. This does not detract the value of the effort but only highlights the immensity and the intricacy of the task and its future possibilities for purposes of study and research. As far as we are aware, despite limitations due to time, money and space, not many comparable ventures of this amplitude have been undertaken. While discussing the management of the personnel systems, the broad political, sociological, economic and constitutional framework cannot altogether be left out. In any case, it is not always easy conceptually and analytically, to work out an optimum harmonisation of the intensity of the gaze with the breadth of vision. It is in this light that this volume will have to be evaluated. While it will be difficult to agree with the authors always either with their elaboration of the theme or their conclusions, there is no doubt that this well documented study with its references, notes and index will provide a stimulating fare to the students of public administration, practising administrators and specialists, as also to the policy makers who, in their operational responsibilities, are required to have an eye both for

The character and development of personnel systems are necessarily rooted in the country concerned. At the same time, the intellectual climate in which we live, the international setting in which we operate as also the commonalty of objectives and experience do influence them and there is something ecological and something wider, without being universalistic, which set them beyond national frontiers. No sound and scientific personnel system can be built on a totally inwardlooking approach. This is one of the object lessons which a comparative study vividly brings out. No personnel system can ever be a finished product as it is both the subject and the object of human factors. It is the awareness as a quest for improvement, keeping with the dynamics of change, that really counts. In refashioning a personnel system, the kind of parameters and constraints that operate need to be realistically understood and tackled. Probably, it needs the capacity and insight for 'creative destruction' if one is not to be a prisoner of shibboleths like structural change or wholesale transformation, without looking either before or after. It is not the sloganised approach that proves effective but a well designed programme of effort and reform of the various facets of the personnel system.

As mentioned earlier, public personnel system is not an isolate, it is very intimately linked with the political culture and constitutional system. In most of the countries the public services come under criticism at different times for various reasons. It is there in the developed as well as the developing countries. Reference may be made in this connection to the post-Fulton Committee developments in the UK and the series of steps initiated in the USA under the Carter Administration. In developing countries where the tasks of economic development, social change, modernisation and egalitarian pressures face the policy makers, the adequacy or otherwise of the public personnel system itself becomes a subject of debate, on an emotional plane, even in informed circles. The question of the representative character of the public services and their role in nation-building becomes very important. Besides, even the conceptual dichotomy between policy and implementation breaks down giving rise to public criticism if administrative performance, in keeping with the policy measures enunciated, does not materi-

alise. It is also natural that in the process of administration and development, the question of control and allocation of resources in practical forms rests with the public services, though under political direction, and they cannot remain for long away from critical public gaze. Public personnel system thus has to equip itself for organisational effectiveness and fulfilment of policy objectives.

The authors in the 'prologue' have tried to indicate the wide gamut of personnel system commencing from manpower planning and recruitment to appraisal and evaluative norms. They also discuss and refer to the manifold challenges that administration in the contemporary society faces in the context of the growth of social awareness, the scientific and technological impact, and the increase in the size of organisations both horizontally and vertically. It is not a mere cliche but a fact with serious implications that administration is in a state of constant flux. And the significance of a public personnel system lies in the very nature of this flux, as it has to seek and work out some sort of a dynamic equilibrium to cope with the nature, limits, possibilities and consequences of change in human affairs. A comparative study of administration, with all its limitations, does seem to provide some insight in this endeavour. The authors in the opening chapter provide a broad background of the personnel systems and some of the intrinsic problems which are discussed at some length in the subsequent chapters.

It is neither possible nor necessary to try to sum up the arguments and the approach of the authors about the essential elements of the personnel system. It will suffice here to say that their discussion of the role and responsibilities as well as the locus and the focus of the central personnel agencies as dealt with by them project a bewildering picture and throw up a number of questions; as, for instance, of the mode of recruitment. In some countries the pendulum has moved to departmental control from the independent civil service commission approach. This has serious implications, administrative and political. It may not be out of place to say here that the public personnel system, while having its own special features, has some interacting points with business administration and defence management. New managerial perspectives and psychological advances have also something to contribute to the generation of consciousness

for improvement in the public personnel system. The point to note is that they should be suitably adopted and integrated and just not remain as status symbols bereft of operational effectiveness and impact.

While discussing the personnel agencies at work, the place of training in public services as well as the statutory and non-statutory bases of many personnel policies and practices like salary determination, problems of rank and hierarchy, placement, machinery for grievances redress, issues in morale and motivation etc., crop up. In this book the approach is descriptive as well as comparative and analytical. In the background of their survey, the authors draw our attention to some emerging trends in the management of personnel systems and these have a very direct and intimate bearing on the image and effectiveness of the public services themselves. The approach of human resources development does not interpret professionalisation in any narrow or restricted specialisation but as an attitude of mind seeking to extend the frontiers of knowledge conceptually and in the quest for excellence in the discharge of operational responsibilities. Even a brief analysis of each of these trends will only mean a truncated effort. The proliferation of public services will have to be judged from the angle of social cost as well as the imperatives of an activist state policy. The problems of centralisation, discipline, position classification, the operationalisation of the merit principle, career system and turnover, lateral entry, representativeness in composition, the diversified training programmes at different stages, the norms and standards of work and conduct, productivity measurement, etc. are all intrinsic to our thinking of a better and a more scientific personnel system.

Having discussed the different aspects of the personnel systems, the authors refer to the fundamental objective of maximising personnel potential to which the preceding discussion leads to. In this connection they mention that the central personnel agencies have to be given a definite, positive and meaningful role especially in view of the expanding functions under which they have to operate. It is to this difficult task that the authors devote themselves in the concluding chapter. They refer to the political context of administration, the competence of the public services for developmental tasks and, the need for public services to be instrumental in the basic framework of political account-

ability. In this connection training for task-orientation and people-orientation of the public services merits attention. Training for public services by itself is a vast subject. It is not by carping criticism but by well-conceived programmes for training, taking into account the developing problems of tomorrow, that we can make a contribution in moulding the public services on the right lines. The role of training institutions needs careful attention. The personnel system must provide for avenues of redressal of grievances and thus inspire a sense of fairplay and confidence among all concerned. A sound personnel system also envisions that there will be an element of self-restraint in matters of placement and promotion. The responsibility of the higher echelons of administrative leadership in this regard is vital. It is a matter of gratification that these and many other equally relevant problems have been explored by the authors. They have attempted a model or a framework of the personnel system agency after having considered the prevailing inadequacies in the countries they have analysed and what according to them are the desirable and positive features of the personnel system to be brought about. This exercise is, by its nature, illustrative and exploratory.

In the years to come, the problems of energy, ecology, economy, equity and ethics besides public participation are the crucial issues which will loom large in the field of public administration and to deal with them we will require public service systems which are adequate, purposive, imaginative, socially conscious and cognisant of the changing times.

We hope this volume will not only be a useful guide to the students of public administration but also be a reference document for further studies and research. As part of the programme of publications during the Silver Jubilee Year of the Indian Institute of Public Administration, we are glad to publish it as it obviously fills a gap in the area of comparative public administration.

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NEW DELHI
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T.N. Chaturvedi

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Director

Preface

Managing Public personnel systems is an important administrative activity and is today recognised as a very rich area of inquiry. A body of theoretical and practical knowledge concerning personnel policies and practices has accumulated in each country over the years. An administrator combines artistic, attitudinal and scientific parameters and qualities in an individualised personalised manner. In the course of performing his duties and responsibilities, personnel system is collectively considered as a practising vocation, a respected calling, consisting of many sub-systems and operating units. Personnel functions are not performed the same way in all organisations or countries but, underneath, the concern is the same, *i.e.*, how to tackle and grasp the challenges of the coming decades.

The present study of twenty-two countries—seven developed, *i.e.*, Australia, Canada, France, Japan, United Kingdom, United States of America and the Federal Republic of Germany, and fifteen developing, *i.e.*, Bangladesh, Ghana, India, Indonesia, Iran, Kenya, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Nepal, Nigeria, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Thailand— deals with the management aspect with special reference to the role of central personnel agencies. There were compulsions to ignore systems of some of the countries which have devoted considerable thought to their administrative structures and produced meaningful results. Any system of selection must involve omissions but while we hold no brief for omissions, effort has been made to select as large a number as possible of the developing countries. A meticulous listing of details for each country has been avoided but the salient features of the system have been brought out as far as possible. This humble effort

does not attempt to provide any solutions to problems but presents a clearer picture of the emerging problems and a wider knowledge of the various ways in which challenges are being met. There is no prescription or claim to suggest a right way of doing things valid throughout the world. There may be as many right ways of doing things as there are environments. This comparative study shows the multiplicity of alternative practices, even in countries with broadly similar problems and ideologies and under similar stages of development. This effort should be useful to officers having immediate responsibility for establishment matters as well as to policy-forming officers such as ministers, heads of agencies, the highest administrators as well as members of legislative bodies who may have under consideration the creation of infrastructure for personnel or providing finances in the budget. Scholars of comparative public administration would also find it useful in more than one way.

The data collection for this project started many years ago and since then a number of visits to many of these countries, perusal of published monographs and discussions with senior officers at national and international meets have kept the interest alive. It goes to the credit of Shri T.N. Chaturvedi, Director, Indian Institute of Public Administration that he initiated us to put the material to shape in the shortest possible time, and made valuable suggestions. He not only read and revised the draft literally word for word but lent us many rare books from his personal collection. But for his constant encouragement and affectionate touch, this material would have not seen the light of the day. Therefore, it is but proper that he, at our request, condescended to add a foreword to this work. Our most sincere gratitude to him. Prof. R. C. Paul, Vice-Chancellor, Panjab University has always been kind and liberal, extending patronage and affection. Prof. Kuldeep Mathur closely scrutinised the draft and made a number of valuable suggestions for which we are grateful. We are also indebted to Prof. Rajni Kothari and Prof. V.A. Pai Panandikar for their keen interest in the completion of this project.

Maximum care has been taken to present the latest factual position but it is not always possible to keep track of events specially when as many as twenty-two countries are covered. We are specially beholden to the following scholars and admi-

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Prologue

Public personnel administration is chiefly concerned with managing and developing the human resources of the government, inheriting the static public policy while the dynamics of policy processes moves ever onwards. Organisational effectiveness is greatly influenced by the capabilities of the administrators and by the knowledge, skills, motivation and productivity of men who work within the organisation. Personnel policies and practices are so designed as to suit the peculiar conditions of particular political systems[1]. Another concern is to motivate administrators to secure, develop and utilise human resources effectively for the accomplishment of organisational goals and to develop flexible systems of position classification, and salary determination. How top echelons are attracted, developed and utilised too falls within its purview. Personnel policies which clarify and stress the responsibilities for effective management and promote the highest ethical standards need a specialised and exclusive treatment. Employer-employee relations, continuous manpower planning, encouragement of in-service training, and education and improvement of methods and techniques for obtaining quick results are also given an exclusive treatment, breaking away from the generic public administration. No wonder, personnel administration is increasingly emerging as one of the most important focal

[1]Yves Chapel, *Administrative Management for Development*, Paris, International Institute of Administrative Sciences, 1977, Ch. II. Also Alan R. Ball, *Modern Politics and Government*, London, Macmillan, 1977, pp 180-197.

points in the study of public administration[2]. To students, teachers and practitioners of administration, it opens new vistas for meaningful research and offers theories which are capable of practical application. Problems of personnel administration are stupendous as well as delicate and have assumed in recent years a complex and controversial character. Today, administration is tending to become more and more specialised, technical and scientific, and dependence on public response is becoming increasingly the *raison d'etre* of administration.[3] However well defined and sophisticated the organisational structure may be, in the ultimate analysis it is the human component which gives strength and sustenance to the organisation in carrying out the enunciated goals and objectives.

The current administrative situation, on a global perspective has changed considerably adding a variety of dimensions and contemporaneous challenges. *First*, administration has ceased to be merely regulatory and is increasingly being involved in the formulation and implementation of policies concerned with social welfare and economic growth. *Second*, the regulatory administration continues to exist, and where it does, the volume has increased and new problems have arisen due to increasing industrialisation and growing social awareness. *Third*, science and technology have projected new tasks of administration, bringing about an administrative revolution. *Fourth*, the enormous growth of personnel has rendered it necessary to devise special measures for ensuring optimum performance of each employee. Thus, the personnel system and policies which are to be evolved in the coming decades are, to a very great

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[2]Craig Eric Schneier and Richard W. Beatty, *Personnel Administration Today: Readings and Commentary*, London, Addison-Wesley, 1978. A.N. Nash and J.B. Miner, *Personnel and Labour Relations: An Evolutionary Approach*, New York, MacMillan, 1973, pp. 153-163. Elmer H. Burack and Edwin L. Miller, "The Personnel Function in Transition", *California Management Review*, Vol. XVIII, 1976, pp. 32-38.

[3]Bernard Schaffer, "Administrative Legacies and Links in the Post-Colonial State: Preparation, Training and Administrative Reforms", *Development and Change*, Vol. IX, No. 2, April 1978, pp. 175-200. Edmund W., "Problems in Governmental Management", *Greenhill Journal of Administration*, Vol. III, April 1978, pp. 90-92.

extent, going to determine the efficacy of the administrative system.[4]

Administration today is in a state of flux. Deeply ingrained attitudes and long held concepts are being questioned, more frequently and with greater vigour than ever before. Countries developing as well as developed or in between—generally suffer from a serious lack of administrative capability to achieve significant progress.[5] The challenges of the forthcoming decades in the field of economic and social development are potent and governments have not only to take direct cognizance of public bodies but also facilitate, allocate and regulate those functions which are needed to accelerate development and also encourage people's participation in nation building. Today there is an increasing awareness that national efforts for development depend on the ability of the government to identify and define problems, assign priorities among competing demands, develop skills, allocate resources and apply science and technology to carry out various programmes of action.[6] The unprecedented opportunities offered by scientific and technological advances, the commitment and compulsions regarding administrative reforms, and the rising expectations for improved facilities for education, health, nutrition, housing and social welfare, have made the central role of administration complex.

The administrators of the world are faced with the problem of formulating a strategy for the future, not ignoring the rami-

[4]T.N. Chaturvedi, "Management for Investment Promotion", *Occasional Paper*, Training Division, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, Cabinet Secretariat, New Delhi. Robert H. Simmons and E.P. Dvorin, *Public Administration: Values, Policy and Change*, New York, Alfred, 1977, Ch. III. 'Frederick Lane (Ed.), *Current Issues in Public Administration*, New York, St. Martin's Press, 1978.

[5]Dwight Ink and Thomas Murphy, "Organizing Reorganisation", *Bureaucrat*, 7 (2) Summer 78, pp. 10-16. Richard L. Schott, "Professionals and the Public Service: Time for Some Second Thoughts", *Midwest Review of Public Administration*, Vol. XII (1), Mar. 1978, pp. 12-18.

[6]United Nations, *Public Administration in the Second United Nations Development Decade*, New York, United Nations, 1971, p. 3. Craig Eric Schneier, *Personnel Administration Today: Readings and Commentary*, Mass, Addison-Wesley, 1978.

fications of continued growth. Alvin Tofler has given a timely warning that "if we do not learn from history, we shall be compelled to endure it. True, but if we do not change the future, we shall be compelled to endure it. And that could be worse."[7] Due largely to intellectual achievements of freedom of thought, modern society has come to a position in which all its own assumptions, values and institutions may be questioned, tested and even challenged. Simultaneously, the society has evolved its own instruments of transformation or self-destruction. The prospect for the administrator in the predictable future is one of extraordinary difficulty. A compounding of tensions and crises in an era of rapid ideological changes will accentuate the need for foresight, initiative, flexibility and sensitivity in the management of public affairs. The affirmative action most needed today is a determined effort to discover and develop administrators able to conceptualise policy alternatives and assess their implications as well as to think operationally in systems terms. The administrator, in order to outlive this hazardous transition, should have a broad range of knowledge and personal competence. Besides, insight, foresight and ability to focus on the problems as they develop have to be developed. A failure to heed to this warning could be one of the most expensive errors that any country could afford.[8]

Though the utility, need and importance of personnel administration has been stressed by national and international entities, the resources available and the measures adopted are seldom commensurate with what is required. As the complexities unfold, the problems increasingly require interdisciplinary and multi-functional approaches. An important dimension to develop interdisciplinary perception, knowledge and skills would be to expose an increasing number of administrators to a broad spectrum of knowledge. Only by exploring the different conditions faced by different administrators in different

[7]Alvin Tofler (Ed.), *The Futurists*, New York, Random House, 1972, p. 3.

[8]James L. Marcer and Edwin H. Koester, *Public Management Systems*, New York, Anacom, 1978. William P. Anthony and Edward A. Nicholson, *Management of Human Resources: A Systems Approach to Personnel Management*, Columbus, Grid, 1977.

countries can experts hope to identify the variety of administrative strategies that are to be adopted to overcome specific conditions of the respective countries.[9] International experience is, therefore, essential to the development of a model of administrative contingencies and this is to be evolved through an appreciation of the effect of local conditions on the choice of administrative strategies.[10]

COMPARATIVE STUDIES

Comparative studies in recent years have been mostly encouraged as a result of two related sets of circumstances; a growing feeling of the inadequacy of traditional approaches, and the stimulus offered by a host of new concepts and tools for research. Public administration in particular has been marked by a sense of dissatisfaction with controversies of locus and focus and by a growing quest for new approaches. The late sixties were spectacular in the sense that during those years, studies in comparative administration and development administration demonstrated an amazing productivity and their importance grew with the Comparative Administration Group under the leadership of scholars like Fred Riggs[11]. The underlying confidence in the initiation of such efforts was a hope that new advances in the area of organisation theory would be brought to bear fruitfully in the analysis of organisational topics of interest to researchers whether at home or abroad.[12]

[9]Howard E. McCurdy, *Public Administration : A Synthesis*, Sydney, Cumming Publishing Company, 1977, Part IV, Ch. IX. *New Approaches to Personnel Policy for Development*, New York, U.N., 1974, pp.13-14.

[10]John W. Sutherland (Ed.), *Management Hanbook for Public Administrators*, New York, Reinhold, 1979, Part IV. Leon C. Megginson, *Personnel and Human Resources Administration*, Ontario, Richard, 1977, Ch. II.

[11]Refer Symposium on "Comparative and Development Administration: Retrospect and Prospect", *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 36, No. 6, 1976, pp. 615-654. *Report of the Inter-regional Seminar on Major Administrative Reforms in Developing Countries*, New York, U.N., 1972, Paras 22 and 23.

[12]Dwight Waldo, "Comparative Public Administration, Prologues Performance, Problems and Promise", Symposium on Business Policy, 1963, Mimeo, pp. 11-12. Fred Riggs, "Three Levels in the Theory and Practice of Public Administration", *Korean Journal of Public Administration*, 1969, pp. 161-70.

Comparative public administration as a movement delineates an area of concern and a methodological orientation to study the administrative process and organisation for the purpose of answering common problems and questions. Established analytical categories and institutions are analysed and compared, with an aim towards the development of a body of knowledge so that policy recommendations can be made. The effort is to discover, define and differentiate various approaches or arrangements and to develop criteria of differentiation that are useful in ordering and analysing the issues once they have been identified.[13]

In search of methodologies and a conceptual framework, various typologies and theories and models have been propounded and analysed. The concept of culture, action theory, structural-functional analysis, equilibrium theory, communication theory, multivariate analysis have all been taken cognisance of. A typical bureaucratic model makes the assumptions such as that: (*a*) there is great inequality within the organisation, among participants, in their status, abilities, contributions to the organisation and rewards,[14] (*b*) the technology applied within the organisation is simple and within the reach of a few people; (*c*) the office at the top is assumed to be omniscient and issues all orders in the organisation; (*d*) these orders are classified downwards by successive levels of subordinates so that there is complete delegation;[15] (*e*) the source of authority being legi-

[13]For detailed discussion, refer F.W. Riggs, "Trends in the Comparative Study of Public Administration", *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 28 (1962), pp. 9-15. I. Swerdlow, (Ed.), *Development Administration: Concept and Problems*, New York, Syracuse, 1973. Dwight Waldo (Ed.), *Temporal Dimensions of Development Administration*, Durham, Duke University Press, 1970. Edward Weidner (Ed.), *Development Administration in Asia*, Durham, Duke University Press, 1970.

[14]William Delanis, "The Development and Decline of Patrimonial and Bureaucratic Administration," *Administrative Science Quarterly*, Vol. VII, 1962-63, p. 461. B.B. Schaffer, "Deadlock in Development Administration" in Collin Leys (Ed.), *Politics and Change in Developing Countries*, Cambridge University Press, 1969, pp. 177.

[15]Studies mentioned are D. Oranick, *Management of the Industrial Firm in the U.S.S.R.*, New York, Columbia University Press, 1954. L.A. Fallers, *Bantu Bureaucray*, London, W. Heffer, 1956. T. Caplow, "The Criteria of Organisational Success", *Social Force*, 32, 1953, pp. 1-9. M. Jonowitz, *Sociology and the Military Establishment*, New York, Russel Sage Foundation, 1959.

timate, conflict is not favoured and thus bargaining coalitions and other conflict-settling activities are illegitimate.[16] Systems theorists have focussed attention on social processes rather than on formally defined institutions, thus providing a framework for analysing the relation between political and other institutions. By focussing upon functions and processes than on institutions, systems theorists promise to provide an intellectually defensible basis for comparative politics, revealing the similarity in processes to be discerned beneath the differences in structure.[17] Structural-functional analysis aims at gauging the amount of change at the structural level that a system can accommodate without impairing its capacity of fulfilling its basic functional requisites.[18] Starting with agraria and industria as two ideal types of public administration systems, Riggs emphasised in his *Prismatic Model* that similar ideal types could be constructed at various transitional stages between the two extremes.[19] The model sought to relate administrative behaviour to ecological factors, typical of transitional societies.[20] This model helped in understanding the pathology of public administration and focussed on the underlying

[16]Anthony Downs, *Inside Bureaucracy*, Chicago, University Press, 1965, p. 37. Peter M. Blau and M.W. Meyer, *Bureaucracy in Modern Society*, New York, Random House, 1971. Henry Jacoby, *The Bureaucratisation of the World*, Berkeley, University of California Press, 1973.

[17]For summaries and a critical essay see M. Black (Ed.), The *Social Theories of Talcott Parsons*, (Englewood. Cliffs, Prentice Hall, 1961.

[18]Roderick Martin, *The Sociology of Power*, Delhi, Ambika, 1978, p. 21.

[19]For details regarding prismatic model refer F.W. Riggs, *Administration in Developing Societies*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin Co., 1964. Riggs, "The Sala Model: An Ecological Approach to the Study of Comparative Public Administration," *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, 6 (1962), pp. 3-16. T.N. Chaturvedi, "Public Service and Modern Challenges: Need for Continuing Education",*Training Abstract No. 10*, Training Division, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, Cabinet Secretariat, New Delhi.

[20]F.S.A. Al-Salem, *The Ecological Dimensions of Development Administration*, New Delhi, Associated, 1977. Ramesh K. Arora, *Comparative Public Administration: An Ecological Perspective*, New Delhi, Associated, 1972. *Bureaucracy and Development: Indian Perspective* (Ed.), New Delhi, Associated, 1978. R.B. Jain, "Comparative Aspects of Public Administration" in Robin Winks (Ed.), *Other Views and Other Voices*, New York, Green-Press, 1978.

problems of administrative development in transitional societies.[21]
However well-conceived the indictment, basically the fact is that
such theories fail to win wide acceptance and cannot be tested
empirically. Savage gives a typical summing up, saying such
work "displays a melange of idiosyncratic theoretical formula-
tions and organising perspectives, many of which have more to
do with academic or personal fancy than with any generally
acceptable cumulative purpose."[22]

Discordant voices were heard from various quarters about
the utility and goal achievement perspectives without caring that
the task was formidable and practically guaranteed nothing but
limited success. It is true that this movement did not develop
a viable applied aspect in the shape of goal-based empirical
theories, but the problems were numerous. *First,* administration
is only one aspect of the operation of the political system; there-
fore, it becomes difficult to treat without linking it with com-
parative politics.[23] *Second,* it is large enough to include all
dimensions, thus making it too unwieldy. *Third,* difficulties of
conceptualisation and jurisdiction exist of relating the universal
and the unique in one system.[24] *Fourth,* the competence in the
field of comparative research methodology is lacking, leading to
the difficulties of model building which can help in developing a
theory or hypothesis around which a generalisation applicable
to many administrative systems can be built and tested.[25] *Fifth,*

[21]Richard A. Chapman, "Prismatic Theory in Public Administration:
A Review of the Theories of Fred W. Riggs", *Public Administration,*
London, Winter, 1966, p. 423.

[22]Ferrel Heady, "Comparative Administration: A Sojourner's Outlook",
op. cit., p. 359. Peter Savage, "Optimism and Pessimism in Compara-
tive Administration", *op. cit.,* p. 417. Richard Gable, *Plan for Research and
Publication in Public Administration,* Washington, 1961.

[23]Robert T. Golembiewski and William B. Eddy (Ed.), *Organisation
Development in Public Administration,* New York, Marcel Dekker, 1978.
David Pace, *Direct Participation in Action: the New Bureaucracy,* Westend,
Saxon, 1978.

[24] Serge Mallet, *Bureaucracy and Technocracy in the Socialist Countries,*
Nottingham, Spokesman Books, 1974. D. Gvishiani, *Organisation and
Management,* Moscow, Progress Publishers, 1972.

[25]Ferrel Heady, "Comparative Administration: A Sojourner's Outlook",
Public Administration Review, Vol. 38, Number 4, 1978, p. 364. Refer
V.A. Thompson, *Bureaucracy and Innovation,* New York, University of
Alabama Press, 1969.

there are difficulties of quantification that arise, from the range and nature of variables.[26] *Sixth*, there are also difficulties arising from the interplay and inter-relationships among the norms, structures and behaviour of the administrative systems.[27] *Seventh*, there is still some vagueness and even ambivalence as to the claim of public administration to be a self-contained academic discipline.[28]

The above passing reference to some of the problems of comparative studies should not be taken to mean that all avenues open to research on a comparative basis have been exhausted. Serious studies on a cross national basis provide vast potentialities for scientific and meaningful research towards the identification of a universal administrative plane. Common frameworks can be built up for testing the validity of administrative generalisation evolved through regional comparisons and for determining the overall performance of an administrative system in terms of goal achievements.[29] The achievement of higher levels of integration and relevance of administratice concepts is crucial for any significant impact of the comparative approach as well as for the emergence of theory. The existing administrative situation proves that gone are the days when study and research in public administration could be confined within the traditional parochial national boundaries. The comparative perspective has become so inevitable and prominent that understanding of one's own national system of administration will be enhanced by placing it in a cross-cultural setting.[30]

[26]T.P. Lyons, *The Personnel Function in a Changing Environment*, Canada, Pitman Publishing, 1971, p. 213. L. Barnes, "Approaches to Organisational Change" in W. Bennis, K. Benne, and R. Chin (Ed.), *The Planning of Change*, New York, Holt, 1969, p. 79.

[27]Garth N. Jones, "Frontiersmen in Search for the Lost Horizon", *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 36, No. 1, 1976, p. 102. Sidney Mailick (Ed.), *The Making of the Manager: A World View*, New York, Anchor Press, 1974, pp. 360-61.

[28]Peter Savage, "Optimism and Pessimism in Comparative Administration", *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 36, No. 4, 1976, p. 417.

[29]R. Beckhard, *Organisation Development—Strategies and Models*, London, Addison-Wesley, 1969. N. Margnlies and A.P. Raia, *Organisational Development: Values, Process and Technology*, New York, McGraw Hill, 1972.

[30]Martin Kriesberg, *Public Administration in Developing Countries*, Washington, The Brookings Institute, 1965. Nimrod Raphael, (Ed.), *Readings in Comparative Public Administration*, Boston, Allyn & Bacon, 1967.

Whatever the exacerbating conditions and inevitable problems, the neglect of value issues, being helpful for problem-solving, generated vigorous reactions and over-reactions. Neither the proponents nor the opponents could, however, ignore the amazing storehouse of knowledge and proliferation of approaches. It was increasingly realised that the failure of comparative administration rested substantially on a self-imposed failure experience. The goals were unattainable and the vision premature and even dangerous. The focus on development administration corrected some of the imbalances and in spite of all the controversies, public administration as a discipline is increasingly in search of identity.[31] Younger scholars and practitioners have started challenging the established norms. This reaction became known as the *New Public Administration*, the third major new trend in public administration. Its supporters' preference is towards a shift towards the blending of normative and empirical approaches to theory and promotion of an instrumental-normative approach to theory, calling for the study of value preferences but eschewing value judgements. They advocate an increasing inter-disciplinary penetration and shift towards analytical approaches especially towards analytical middle-range theories. Public policy should become a central focus of future research and attempts at synchronising various complementary activities, multidimensionally geared, will substitute univariate, functional separation.[32]

The motivation is almost similar and effort is made to cash in on the experience of comparative administration and to derive such insights about the developmental feature of new public administration. The major thrust of the new wave is almost identical to the earlier contributions of comparative administration and both the approaches emphasise that, for many purposes, organisations must be viewed as imbedded in specific

[31]*Development Administration: Current Approaches and Trends in Public Administration for National Developmeut*, New York, United Nations, 1975. S.K. Sharma (Ed.), *Dynamics of Development: An International Perspective*, Delhi, Concept, 1978.

[32]Frank Marini (Ed.), *A New Public Administration: The Minnowbrook Perspective*, Scranteon, Chander, 1971. *Public Administration in the Second United Nations Development Decade:* Report of the Second Meeting of Experts, United Nations, New York, 1971.

cultures and political setting. Further, any proper discipline must complement the pure and applied aspects, even if these aspects are difficult to keep in any reasonable balance.[33] The main weakness of the approaches adopted so far has been that no serious effort was undertaken to develop a perfect model which a politician could apply to solve his dilemma. In the earlier period, the need for practical application was central but the need later became a very weak urge. The central tragedy of comparative public administration has been that it failed to develop, usually even failed to recognise, the need for a methodology for empirical analysis.[34]

In recent years, comparative administration is being increasingly seen as an integral part of the larger field of public administration and it is being realised that the comparative perspective is perhaps the most important avenue for administrative reforms and improving public policies.[35] For example, Donald C. Rowat makes a comparative study of public access to administrative information in twelve countries: four in Scandinavia (Sweden, Finland, Denmark and Norway), four in Western Europe (Belgium, France, the United Kingdom and West Germany), two in Eastern Europe (Hungary and Yugoslavia), and two in North America (Canada and the United States). Sidney Verba and associates make a survey of political participation in seven nations—Nigeria, Austria, Japan, India, the Netherlands, Yugoslavia and the United States in which the authors examine the

[33]Robert T. Golembiewski, *Public Administration as a Developing Discipline*, New York, Marcel Dekker, 1977, p. 144. C.Y. Wub, *Development Administration: Current Approaches and Trends in Public Administration*, New York, United Nations, 1975.

[34]Fred I. Greenstein and Nelson W. Polsby (Ed.), *Handbook of Political Science*, London, Addison-Wesley, 1975, Vol. II. V.A. Pai Panandikar (Ed.), *Development Administration in India*, Bombay, Macmillan, 1974. *Governmental Systems and Development*, Bombay, Popular, 1976. J.N. Khosla, "Administrative Reforms in India: The Perspectives and Problems", *EROPA Review*, June, 1968. "Development Administration : New Dimensions", *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. XIII, 1967, pp. 16-62.

[35]Dwight Waldo, "The Administrative State Revisited", *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 25, March 1965, pp. 16-17. John M. Shafritz, *et al*, *op. cit.*, p. 293.

relationship between social, economic and educational factors and political participation.[36]

The relationships between institutions and environments have been receiving disproportionate attention during the last two decades. The areas of comparative politics and comparative public administration have dealt with the problem from a variety of perspectives and orientation.[37] In a general way, comparative studies have emphasised a macro-level of analysis. It had been realised that most of the analytical approaches to political and administrative analysis have been generally inadequate to cope with the ongoing process of societal conflict, change and development. Recent researches have shown that a micro-level approach to the study of public bureaucracy provides much promise for the future of comparative administration. This strategy could be more appropriate to the analysis of those issues and problems that are related to the specific relationships between particular public organisations and their relevant environment.[38]

FOCUS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The role of the higher civil service assumes far more importance in a developing country which has set before it the objective of a planned economic growth. As the development process is intensified, as the hurdles on its way are crossed, new pressures

[36]F.J. Tickner, "A Survey and Evaluation of Comparative Research," *Public Administration Review*, Winter, 1959, p. 19. Donald C. Rowat, *Administrative Secrecy in Developed Countries*, London, MacMillan, 1979, Ch. I. Sydney Verba, *et al*, *Participation and Political Equality: A Seven-nation Comparison*, Cambridge, Cambridge University Press, 1978.

[37]Ferrel Heady and S.D. Stokes (Ed.), *Papers in Comparative Public Administration*, Institute of Public Administration, 1962, pp. 19-37. W. Siffin (Ed.), *Towards the Comparative Study of Public Administration*, Bloomington, 1957. Refer La Palombara, *Alternative Strategies for Developing Administrative Capabilities in Emerging Nations*, Bloomington, 1965, p. 68.

[38]There is a lot of literature to support this contention. The present analysis has, however, been taken from what appeared in *Public Administration Review*, in "Symposium on Comparative and Development Administration: Retrospect and Prospect", Vol. 36, No. 6, November/December 1976, pp. 615-654. Refer Nicholas Henry, *Public Administration and Public Affairs*, Englewood Cliffs, Prentice Hall, 1975.

build up. The time is over when public officials could afford to sit on the development sidelines, limiting their roles to fixing of general rules and to providing certain basic services and incentives. In the scheme of development bureaucracy, structural refabrication is indeed necessary, so are the methods and procedures of work. Unless both of these are dovetailed and reformed to conform to the new tasks, the modernisation of the machine is likely to remain ineffective and useless.[39] The bureaucrat has to be freed from existing conceptual orthodoxies, age-old affiliations and narrow mental grooves, so as to be the fitting torch-bearer of a new and bright development order. The state has increasingly become an instrument of social cooperation as well as social regulation; therefore, administration has become the heart of the modern problem of government. In both developed and developing countries, bureaucracy has come to play a central role in programmes of development and in dealing with the various crises which beset them. Milton Esman aptly remarks, "In the environment of contemporary transitional societies, little nation-building or development activity can be conceived except as stimulated or deliberately programmed by governmental authority ... The ability of governments to cope with the tasks is a function of their capacities to formulate, organise and implement large scale action programme.[40] The federal pattern also cannot achieve much success unless it is able to develop a positive consensus among the different constituents and the ability to generate such a consensus depends largely on the central institutions.

COMPARING PERSONNEL SYSTEMS

There is a certain universality in the major problems that face civil service; how to secure merit, occupational discipline,

[39]Robert T. Golembiewski, "Maintenance and Task as Central Challenges in Public Administration", *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 34, 1974, p. 171. See Robert A Dahl, "The Science of Public Administration — Three Problems", *Public Administration Review*, Vol. 34, Winter 1974, pp. 1-11. B. Guy Peter, *The Politics of Bureaucracy: A Comparative Perspective*, New York, Longman, 1978, p. 202.

[40]"The Politics of Development" in Montgomery and Siffin (Ed.), *Approaches to Development: Politics, Administration and Change*, New York, 1966, p. 64. Jeseph La Palombara, *Bureaucracy and Political Development*, New York, Princeton, 1964, p. 4.

efficiency, high morale, etc., but there is hardly any universality in the solutions. Many developing countries are confronted with the problem of culture constraint. The problem becomes peculiar when organisational patterns are imported from other settings with entirely different ecological conditions, traditions and resources. Personnel systems are influenced to a great extent by the social, economic, political and constitutional framework in which they function. New types of professional and technical skills for the public services have created specialised agencies.[41] The increasing complexity of decision-making functions due to extension of governmental activities has necessitated the administrators, specially at the higher levels, to undertake policy advisory functions and managerial tasks, involved in the implementation of social and economic projects. The personnel systems need sensitivity to the political process, professionalisation of administrative skills, numeracy among senior officials, increased awareness of technological opportunities, greater responsiveness to public demands and greater entrepreneurial acumen in the public service.[42] The broad outline of personnel functions includes:

Survey of the contingent needs of the public service in the context of developmental efforts.

Manpower planning and cadre management.

Job classification and evaluation plans.

Recruitment and selection.

Training, education and administrative development.

Remuneration policy and compensation.

Conditions of service and working conditions.

Conduct, discipline and professional ethics.

[41]L.R. Sayles and G. Strauss, *Managing Human Resources*, Englewood Cliff, Prentice Hall, 1977. H.F. Sikula, *Personnel Administration and Human Resources Management*, Santa Barbara, Wiley, 1976. John Rehferss, *Public Administration as Political Process*, New York, Charles, 1973.

[42]T.N. Chaturvedi,"Quest for Commitment in Public Services", *Training Abstract 28*, Training Division, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, Cabinet Secretariat, New Delhi, 1975. J.M. Shafritz, *et al,Personnel Management in Government, Politics and Process*, New York, Maicel Dekker, 1978, Ch. IV. Andrew F. Sikula, *Personnel Administration and Human Resources Management*, New York, John Wiley, 1976, Part I. Terry Lyons, *The Personnel Function in a Changing Environment*, New York, Pitman Publishing, 1971, p. 10.

Morale, motivation and incentives.

Research and other related aspects as establishing broad policies, standardising procedures, constructive performance reporting, monitoring and public relations.

The dominant note of the personnel management system in many countries has been the lack of a unified central direction. There is neither any single agency where major policies can be formulated, nor a central point from where concerted programmes could be transmitted or implemented. At times there had been establishment divisions of one ministry or the other which dealt with the interpretation and operation of service rules, regulations, relaxation, etc., whereas at others, public service commission became a constitutional authority responsible for certain aspects of personnel management. A number of studies on organisational behaviour and personnel administration show that whatever form the personnel agencies may take, they have not been able to expand their functions in relation to requirements of the times.[43] In sharp contrast to the original examining agencies, the modern personnel organisation is a principal entity of government wherever it operates and carries on an array of activities associated with the human resources of the government. Various administrative agencies and practices developed abroad may prove worthy of consideration for adoption or adaptation at home. The influence of developed administrative systems on the newly independent countries is well known but adoption of administrative machinery originating in smaller nations is less obvious. Many innovative ideas have come to stay after experimentation. It was, therefore, thought rewarding that the arrangements for coordinating personnel policies specially in relation to higher civil services should be studied. It was presumed that a study of the trends in developed and developing countries might throw some useful light on the scope and variety of systems and institutions devised to solve their respective administrative problems. The main thrust of the

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[43]Carlos Parames, Synthesis of the discussion at the Conference in *Instituto, Nacional De Administration Publica, The Function of Public Administration in the Establishment of a New Social and Economic Order*, Mexico City, INAP, 1975, pp. 16-18.

exercise is to raise some questions to the policy-makers, with the possibility that some of the answers may be relevant to the problem-solving exercises which are being undertaken in developed and developing countries. It had been mentioned that the bureaucratic model has been very popular with the researchers and has been comparatively more useful. Should the bureaucratic model stop only by looking at the administrative system in its entirety? The present effort is a search for potentialities and possibilities of undertaking some micro-studies within the larger bureaucratic framework.

The fundamental values of a developmentally oriented administrative system have to be different from those of the traditional ones but in many developing countries, new tasks of development are being assigned to the traditional administrative machinery for implementation. The underlying concern which is the main focus in the present effort is that the present mechanism to deal with various personnel policies in most of the countries is incompatible with its development role. Towards the development of an analytical framework and a reasonable methodology, it was essential to make a comparative and empirical assessment of the existing central personnel agencies in developed and developing countries. The present study does not aim at presenting the whole spectrum of personnel policies but limits itself to the management aspect only. It attempts to investigate a relatively little studied field with the objective of not offering any prescriptions but presenting certain suggestions. The findings and the suggestions are tentative and exploratory to be followed later by greater sophistication and field surveys. The study of personnel administration will continue to remain an important area of enquiry in societies of different hues. Its differing content, will, therefore, provoke many researchers for a long time to come. The study has broader relevance to those developing countries which show resistance to change and depend basically upon a traditional structure as the principal instrument of building up administrative capability. It is hoped that this attempt in a humble way would help in the creation and consolidation of a new body of useful knowledge in the field of comparative public administration. The particular interest of the study lies in focussing attention in an important direction. It picks up both

theoretical and practical problems which may be of special significance and interest to practitioners in the field.

Development of administration means improvement of the administrative capability for development, the latter being the capacity to obtain intended results through organisations.[44] Development has become far broader than economic development and the function of public personnel goes far beyond the implementation of policy. Among the additional functions of the administrative arm of government are its participation in decision-making at the policy level and its active role in forecasting, projecting and planning. Administrative capability at all levels is itself one of the scarcest of all resources in developing nations.[45] Development institutions and agencies, including those for administrative reform and improvement can function effectively only if the personnel system is well organised. Efforts are being made everywhere to develop manpower planning in the public services and expand the opportunity for education and training with a view to increasing the supply of personnel with the requisite administrative and managerial skills and motivation to achieve development goals.[46] Countries are also in search of criteria and assistance in evaluating their administrative capabilities and in selecting measures and methods to improve them. Administrative development is ultimately to be judged by the performance and the achievement of results. Performance is vitally affected by the internal structure and the environment in which the system operates. One of the principal recommendations for developing administrative capability in any country is through the development of internal appraisal

[44]Refer *Appraising Administrative Capability for Development*, New York, UN, 1969, p. 8, and "Preliminary Notes of the Working Group to Explore the Possibility of Formulating Concrete Measurement for Administrative Capacity," No. 42, October, 1971.

[45] *Appraising Administrative Capability for Development*. A Methodological Monograph prepared by the International Group for Studies in National Planning (INTERPLAN), New York, U.N. 1969, para 18.

[46]Donald T. Bryant and Richard J. Niehaus, *Manpower Planning and Organisation Design*, London, Plenum Press, 1977, Section 1. Fathi EL-Rashidi,*Human Aspects of Development*, Brussels, IIAS, 1971, Ch. II. D.J. Bartholomev, *et al*, "Manpower Planning in the Face of Uncertainty", *Personnel Review*, Vol. 5, No. 3, 1976. A.R. Smith, *Manpower Planning in the Civil Service*, London, HMSO, 1976, pp. 9-24.

capability in both organisations and larger systems. One step towards establishing such capability is a more accurate analysis of just what the experience of the more developed countries has been.[47]

Could some nodal agencies like central personnel agencies be used to place personnel systems on a scale built for judging administrative development? It is assumed that larger the government's activity, more developed the personnel agency is likely to be. The authors of this book have already published a couple of research papers, using a part of the data collected for this study answering these questions and the reactions and feedback from scholars were very encouraging.[48]

Personnel system is a sub-system which is attracting attention of the scholars as a separate branch of study. The dangers of keeping other variables which influence the environment of personnel administration constant are numerous. Therefore to look at one agency for a limited purpose, seemingly torn out of context, may not be scientifically accurate but by ignoring this constraint in as many as twenty-two countries, developed and developing, it was thought some meaningful insights and similarities may be discernible. This exploratory study has been based on: (a) extensive field work for a number of years, (b) perusal of published material, both books as well as research articles, (c) studies of reports of the various commissions and inquiry committees of various countries, (d) interviews with some knowledgeable persons. Subject to certain reservations, the term civil service is used here in the English sense of the term or that of the Spanish *servicio civil*. The English also use the term 'public service', a broader concept, but likewise roughly the equivalent of the French term, 'fonction publique'. Throughout this study, the term civil service conveys all the meanings as covering the expressions used in English, French and Spanish. We have not gone into minute details of the exact

[47]United Nations, *Appraising Administrative Capability for Development*, pp. 28-29. Faqir Muhammad, "Use of Modern Management Approaches and Techniques in Public Administration", *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, Brussels, 1971, pp. 197-99.

[48]"Comparative Personnel Administration-Central Personnel Agencies", *Management in Government*, Vol. X, No. 2, July-September, 1978, pp. 1-23. "Selecting Higher Administrators: A Trend Analysis", *Prashasanika*, Vol II, No. 3, July-September, 1973, pp. 13-38.

nuances of the term in individual countries and only the personnel of the central government is included.[49] The data has been checked till date taking the help of distinguished scholars, administrators and their published work. Reference to socialist countries, whether developed or developing, has been avoided for obvious reasons.

The advanced countries referred to are *seven*, *viz.*, Australia, Canada, France, the Federal Republic of Germany, Japan, the United Kingdom and the United States. The developing countries which have been taken up are *Fifteen i.e.* the People's Republic of Bangladesh, Ghana, India, Indonesia, Iran, Kenya, the Republic of Korea, Malaysia, Nepal, Nigeria, Pakistan, the Philippines, Sri Lanka, Tanzania and Thailand. In all the countries listed above, either constitutional or statutory law provides the basic framework for the operation of their public personnel systems. In most of the countries there exist civil service statutes and in some the constitution prescribes the merit principles, and the personnel system is regulated by an elaborate set of administrative regulations framed by the executive. Almost all countries have organised systems of public service divided into classes or cadres; only a couple of them, Philippines and Japan, include a special category of posts for political appointees.[50]

Multinational comparisons are useful for understanding administrative processes because of their multi-contextual nature. It is just this multi-contextuality that makes comparative studies difficult and the question how comparable they really are? The analyses demonstrate that the results of comparative survey research are always subject to challenges to their validity and the challenges are seldom answerable. There may be a similarity or a difference between two societies. It may be in the proportions of a sample responding in particular ways, in the relations among variables in two societies, in group differences within

[49]*A Handbook of Public Administration: Current Concepts and Practices with Special Reference to Developing Countries*, New York, U.N. 1961, *Handbook of Civil Service Laws and Practices*, New York, United Nations, 1966.

[50]Louis Fougere, *Civil Service Systems: Essays and Texts*, Brussels, UNESCO, 1967. David Schuman, *Bureaucracies, Organisations and Administration*, London, Macmillan, 1976.

societies. It is not sufficient to study the civil service by simply considering the multiplicity of the problems and the variety of solutions. One important dimension that cannot be neglected concerns the individual systems in which different procedures are brought into harmony. It is the system that ultimately gives to the civil service of any country, its coherence, its strength and its stability. Systems are valuable not only as illustrations, they are powerful influences for ill or for good. A brief description of some saleient features of the administration system of each country covered in this study is given in the following pages.

ORGANISATIONAL PATTERNS FOR ADMINISTRATION

In the *Commonwealth of Australia*, a federation on the American model, despite the clear and direct managerial responsibility placed on the permanent head under a minister, the general working of the department, the recruitment and remuneration of the staff and the determination of the size of the staff in his department, are not within his control. The commonwealth service is sub-divided into four divisions. The first division is a very small group of about 30 permanent heads (equivalent to the Secretaries to the Government of India). The second division is also a compact group of about 700, comprising deputies to the permanent heads, senior managers, and top professionals. The third division constitutes approximately a quarter of the service, containing a variety of middle level administrative and professional personnel as also the higher clerical and technical groups. The fourth division, which amounts to a little less than three-fourths of the service, is composed of lower jobs.[51]

In the *United States of America* the most comprehensive changes since 1883 in the structure and form of the federal personnel system were included in the Civil Service Reform Act passed in October 1978, made effective in January 1979. This

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[51]For details refer J.D.B. Miller, *Australian Government and Politics*, Duckworth, 1965. Howard A. Scarrow, *Higher Public Service of the Commonwealth of Australia*, Duke, Commonwealth Studies Centre, 1957. *Royal Commission on Australian Government and Administration*, 1974-76, (Chairman: H.C. Coombs).

Act changed various substantial personnel policies including new provisions for merit pay, performance appraisal, and appeals. The most important new element is the creation of the senior executive service—a new high standard, high-risk, high reward aggregation of about 9,000 top civil servants who have greater mobility and greater opportunity in assignments among all federal departments and agencies.[52] In *Canada*, a federation, the functions of the central government are somewhat narrower than is the case with other federations. During the last few years, the service has gone through a process of major reconstruction and from the earlier pattern of 700 separate classes, 320 separate pay ranges, and a combined total of 1700 grades, a new and compact structure of 86 occupational groups has emerged.[53] The Glassco Royal Commission in particular called for a greater decentralisation of personnel policies which involved devolution of many personnel functions to the departmental level.

In Europe, the civil service in the *United Kingdom* has been largely modelled on the civil service reforms of the second half of the nineteenth century (the Northcote-Trevelyan Report as implemented by the order-in-council of 1870) which created a unified permanent career civil service, divided into classes with specific functions for the most part. The Home Civil Service strength is about 738,000. About 171,000 of these are 'individual' civil servants—manual workers and skilled craftsmen —who work in ordnance factories and other similar establishments. The non-industrial service of about 576,000 is divided into occupational groups known as classes. The classes fall into three broad groups, *viz.*, the general service classes, the depart-

[52]Civil Service Reforms Act, 1978. Roger Hilsman, *To Govern America,* New York, Harper, 1979. Paul P. Van Riper, *History of the United State Civil Services,* New York, Row, 1958. Harold Seidman, *Politics, Position, and Power: The Dynamics of Federal Organisation,* New York, Oxford University Press, 1975.

[53]Refer J.E. Hodgetts, *The Public Service of Canada: A Physiology of Government 1867-1970,* Toronto, Toronto Press, 1973. Thomas A. Hockin, *Government of Canada,* London, Weidenfeld, 1975. W.D.K. Kernagham, *Bureaucray in Canadian Government,* Methuen, Toronto, 1969. A.M. Willmy, and W.D.K. Keenaghan (Ed.), *Public Administration in Canada: Selected Readings,* Toronto, Methuen, 1968.

mental classes and the linked departmental classes.[54] In contrast to discontinuity in politics, both *France* and *Germany* have had remarkable administrative and bureaucratic continuity. The French civil service is divided into four broad catgories—A, B, C and D. The division is based on pay, on the education required for entry, and on a very broad differentiation in the nature of duties. Each category has in it a number of separate 'corps'. Category 'A' has about seventy. A 'corps' may consist of a single grade or may be divided into a number of grades up to four. Each grade signifies a distinct level of responsibility.[55] The stature of public office is the outcome of a long historical evolution. In all periods, civil servants have constituted an individualised social formation in comparison with other categories of society. The French system aims at providing the state with the uninterrupted services of the civil servant as well as at securing for him a normal and harmonious development of his economic and social condition. The public service sector in West Germany is extensive, amounting to about 12 per cent of the gainfully employed in the country. Public employees are divided into three principal categories: permanent members (*Beamte*), salaried employees (*Angestellte*) and wage-earning manual labourers (*Arbeiter*). Vertically, the civil service is divided into four classes —lower, medium, intermediate, and higher. Each class in turn is broken into numerous functional categories.[56]

[54]William Thornhill, *The Modernisation of British Government*, London, Pitman Publishing, 1975. J.A. Cross, *Modern British Government*, London, University Tutorial Press, 1972. S.R. Maheshwari, *The Civil Service in Great Britain*, Delhi, Concept, 1976. *Report of the Committee on the Civil Service*, 1966-68, HMSO, Vol. I.

[55]Refer F.F. Ridley and Jean Blondel, *Public Administration in France*, London, 1969. Vincent Wright, *The Government and Politics of France*, London, Hutchinson, 1978, Ch. IV. Dogem Mattei (Ed.), *The Mandarins of Western Europe: The Political Role of Top Civil Servants*, London, 1975. Ezra Suleiman, *Politics, Power and Bureaucracy in France: The Administrative Elite*, Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1974.

[56]Refer Nevil Johnson, *Government in the Federal Republic of Germany: The Executives at Work*, Oxford, Pergamon Press, 1973. Arnold J. Heidenheimer, *The Governments of Germany*, New York, Crowell, 1961. Renate Mayntz and F.W. Scharph, *Policy Making in the German Federal Bureaucracy*, Amsterdam, 1975.

In Africa, *Kenya*, though having a unitary form of government, has been divided, for administrative purposes, into seven provinces and the Nairobi area. The organisations primarily concerned with the personnel management are: (*a*) The directorate of personnel, which forms a part of the office of the President, divided into 3 branches—establishment, training and management services. (*b*) The Public Service Commission—consisting of a chairman, a deputy chairman and five commissioners. (*c*) The Judicial Service Commission—responsible for recruitment and control of the officers of the judiciary. (*d*) Most of the major ministries and offices have their own personnel branches headed by a Chief Personnel Officer. (*e*) Provincial personnel branches—located in the seven provincial headquarters under the functional direction of the Director of Personnel. The civil service consists of subordinate service, the clerical and analogous services, the secretarial, the executive and technical services and the administrative and professional services.[57]

In *Ghana*, the civil service has been able to retain much of its inherited status and prestige, in spite of the many effects to curb it when civilian politicians have controlled the government.[58] Administrative performance suffers because of institutional malintegration, the existence of structurally differentiated organisations in an unsupportive socio-cultural environment. The East African nation of *Tanzania* has been able to establish a one-party state (Tanzania African National Union) under a political leader who has dominated the governmental scene since before independence. Rejecting capitalism as a colonial inheritance exploited in operation, Nyerere has advocated

[57]Cherry Oertzel, Maure Goldschmidt and Donald Rothchild, *Government and Politics in Kenya*, Nairobi, East African Publishing House, 1970. T.O. Elias, *Government and Politics in Africa*, Bombay, 1963. G. Hyden, *et al* (Ed.), *Development Administration: The Kenya Experience*, Nairobi, Oxford, 1970. Report of the Commission of Inquiry, Public Service Structure and Remuneration Commission 1970-71, Government Printer, Nairobi, 1971 (Chairman: Duncan Ndegwa).

[58]K.A. Owusu-Ansah, *et al*, *A Survey into the Specific Aspects of the Ghana Civil Service Structure and Procedures*, Accra, GIMPA, 1975. Robert S. Jordan, *Government and Power in West Africa*, London, Faber, 1969. Robert M. Price, *Society and Bureaucracy in Contemporary Ghana*, New York, University of California Press, 1975.

African socialism as an egalitarian concept based on traditional African views. The administrative set-up stays closer to the British model in the arrangement for executive organisation and the civil service.[59] In *Nigeria* each of the twelve states and the federation have separate civil services, with their own Public Service Commissions. The four classes is a mixed group of non-technical general administrative personnel, as well as technical, scientific and professional staff. Each class has a number of grades which are common to all types of personnel contained in it.[60]

As regards South Asia, in *India*, the civil service is largely the legacy of the British, and the administration comprises a number of administrative departments, each under a minister who is individually responsible for its work, the cabinet functioning on the doctrine of joint responsibility. The Indian Civil Service has a constitutional base in a federal set-up in a parliamentary democracy. The all-India services constitute an administrative device, the personnel of which are interchangeable between the central and the state governments. The central services are under the control of the central government. But the established central civil services and other civil posts are classified in a descending order of importance into grades.[61] *Pakistan,* too inherited the British system but later experimented with many constitutional forms. The political power has been concentrated in a military-bureaucratic coalition but later reforms concentrated on establishing political control over both the military and civilian bureaucracies. Many senior civil servants had been dismissed, constitutional guarantees eliminated and an Administrative Reforms Commission had been set up which recommended that the Civil Service of Pakistan (CSP) be fused

[59]William Tordoff, *The Government and Politics in Tanzania*, Nairobi, East African Publishing House, 1967. A.L. Adu, *The Civil Service in New African States*, London, Allen and Unwin, 1965. James R. Finucane, *Rural Development and Bureaucracy in Tanzania*, Holmes and Meier, 1974.

[60]D.J. Murray (Ed.), *Studies in Nigerian Administration*, London, Hutchinson, 1978. James Mackintosh, *Nigerian Government and Politics*, London, 1966. L. Franklin Blitz (Ed.), *The Politics and Administration of Nigerian Government*, New York, 1965.

[61]Reports of Administrative Reforms Commission 1967-1970. Asok Chanda, *Indian Administration*, London, 1958. Refer Special Issues of *Indian Journal of Public Administration*.

into a broader unified service.[62] In *Sri Lanka*, bureaucracy bears the impact of a highly compartmentalised and poorly integrated system but to protect the former Ceylon Civil Service against patronage or partisan interference, all opportunities and promotions were made subject to a Public Service Commission. The professional career bureaucracy provided a highly competent cadre of public servants not only in the ministries but also in the public corporations, where management talent was severely limited.[63] In *Nepal*, the Ranas maintained a policy of complete indifference towards public services and welfare activities. The constitutional set-up to be evolved after the referendum would determine the position of the services. The present National Panchayat which is at the apex of the partyless panchayat system of democracy is the supreme national unicameral legislature.[64] Administratively, *Bangladesh* in herited the structure and civil service system developed in Pakistan with two sets of government employees—one set coming from the then central governmer t and the other from the then provincial government.[65] The government announced a major

[62]Robert Laporte, *Power and Privileges: Influence and Decision-making in Pakistan*, Berkeley, California Press, 1975. Inayatullah (Ed.), *Bureaucracy and Development in Pakistan*, Peshawar, 1963. Khalid B. Sayeed, *The Politics System of Pakistan*, Boston, Houghton, 1967. Mushtaq Ahmed, *Government and Politics in Pakistan*, Karachi, Pakistan Publishing House, 1963. Ralph Braibanti, "Public Bureaucracy and Judiciary in Pakistan" in Joseph La Palombara (Ed.), *Bureaucracy and Political Development*, Princeton, N.J., 1963.

[63]A.J. Wilson, "The Public Services in Ceylon", in C.R. Hensman (Ed.), *The Public Services and the People*, Community Pamphlet No. 3, Colombo, 1963. W.A. Wiswawarnapala, *Civil Service Administration in Ceylon*, Colombo, 1974. *Report of the Committee on Administrative Reforms*, 1966.

[64]H.N. Agarwal, *Administrative System of Nepal*, New Delhi, 1976. Ralph Braibanti (Ed.), *Asian Bureaucratic Systems Emergent from the British Imperial Tradition*, Durham, Duke University Press, 1966. Leo E. Rose and M.W. Fisher, *The Politics of Nepal*, London, Cornell University Press, 1970. Rishikesh Shaha, *Nepal Politics: Retrospect and Propect*, Delhi, Oxford University Press, 1975.

[65]Rounaq Jahan, "Banglabandhu and After, Conflict and Change in Bangladesh", *Round Table* (261). January, 1976, pp. 73-84. Talukdw Maniruzgaman, "Bangladesh: An Unfinished Revolution?" *Journal of Asian Studies*, 34 (4) August 75, pp. 891-911. E.A.G. Robison and Keith Griffin (Ed.), *The Economic Development of Bangladesh*, MacMillan, London, 1974, Ch. III.

reorganisation of the administrative machinery by reducing the number of ministries and divisions and also by reducing the strength of Secretaries and Additional Secretaries. This had been made on the basis of a five-member Committee of the President's Council of Advisers.[66]

In Iran (West Asia), the bureaucracy has been segmented along agency lines rather than uniformly structured. In the traditional autocratic regime, the civil and military bureaucracies have continually expanded their control over the activities of the people while the rulers have even more relentlessly expanded their power over the bureaucracies. The political leadership tries to avoid loss of support from officialdom, particularly those entrusted with maintaining state security. In January, 1979, a civilian cabinet replaced a military cabinet and the country is unlikely to continue as a traditional autocratic regime.[67]

In South East and Far East Asia, *i.e.*, Japan, Thailand, Malaysia, the Philippines, Indonesia, the Republic of Korea, the civil service systems have been continuously adapted to suit the changing conditions. In *Japan*, members of the bureaucratic class belong to the political elite and the bureaucracy continues to be an integral part of the governing power structure[68]. Modernisation was internally stimulated and led by the ruling groups themselves. A strong authoritarian pattern of hierarchy has been internalised, and higher bureaucracy has conferred upon itself a position of central political power. The important

[66]The Committee comprised Kazi Anwarul Huq as Convenor and Major General Ziaur Rahman, Commodore M.H. Khan, Air-Vice Marshal M.G. Nawab and M.N. Huda as members. Nurul Islam, *Development Strategy of Bangladesh*, Pergamon Press, New York, 1978, Ch.I. Robirt S. Anderson, "Impressions of Bangladesh: the Rule of Arms and the Politics of Exhortation." *Pacific Affairs*, 49 (3) Fall 76, 443-75.

[67]Hossein Amirsadeghi (Ed.), *Twentieth Century Iran*, London, Holmes R. Meier, 1977. *Handbook of Civil Service Laws and Practices*, New York, UN, 1966. *Development of Administrators in Selected Countries*, Training Division, Monograph No. 13, Department of Personnel, New Delhi, 1972.

[68]Robert E. Ward. *Japan's Political System*, Prentice-Hall, 1978. Ardath W. Burks, *The Government of Japan*, New York, Praegar, 1962. W.M. Tsuneishi, *Japanese Political Style: An Introduction to the Government and Politics of Modern Japan*, Harper, 1966.

characteristics of the new Public Service Law (1947) are: wider eligibility for entrance examinations, new standards for promotion and more emphasis on technical knowledge and training in non-legal matters. *Thailand* is one of the very few ancient kingdoms, relatively well integrated, managing to survive without being colonised. The system is a kind of bureaucratic polity under 'predatory military rule with a figurehead monarchy which serves a legitimising role. The interests of the bureaucrats themselves shape the organisation of government so as to reflect their needs and purposes as its official beneficiaries.[69] The higher civil service in *Malayasia* has evolved directly from the colonial bureaucratic system, with little change in the institutional arrangements. The most significant transformation has been the substitution of national for expatriate personnel by the process of Malayanisation. The higher ranking bureaucrats form an integral part of the governing elite.[70]

The *Republic of Philippines* has also a highly centralised administration in which the civil service system is modelled on the American. The departments in this archipelago are subdivided into divisions and sections, although sometimes different technology is used for the internal sub-units. Grouped under the office of the President and directly reporting to the President theoretically are a number of agencies like the National Economic Council, the National Planning Commission and others. Republic Act 2260 (Civil Service Act of 1959) which provided the legal foundation for the Civil Service System was amended by Presidential Decree No. 807 on October 6, 1955 in accordance

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[69]W.J. Siffin, *The Thai Bureaucracy: Institutional Change and Development*, Honolulu, East-West Centre, 1966. F.W. Riggs, *The Modernization of a Bureaucratic Polity*, Honolulu, University Press, 1966. Kasem Udyanin and Rufus D. Smith, *The Public Service in Thailand: Organisation, Recruitment and Training*, Brussels, IIAS, 1954.

[70]Stanley S. Bedington, *Government and Politics of Malaysia and Singapore*, Ithaca, Cornell University Press, 1978. M.J. Esman, *Administration and Development in Malaysia*, Ithaca, Cornell, 1971. Robert O. Tilman, *Bureaucratic Transition in Malaya*. Karl Von Vorys, *Democracy without Consensus: Communalism and Political Stability in Malaysia*, Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1975.

with the provisions of the 1973 Philippine Constitution.[71]
Indonesia is a republic with executive power resting with the
President, who is also the Prime Minister and leader of the
Cabinet. The People's Consultative Assembly elects the Presi-
dent and lays down the outlines of national policy. The Supreme
Advisory Council advises the government on important state
matters. The State Controlling Body controls the accountability
of public finance and enjoys investigatory powers. After inde-
pendence, the Republic had to start a new administration. Rem-
nants of the Dutch colonial administration and the Japanese
occupation period were still visible but a great deal was damag-
ed by the change in value system. The merit system was re-
placed by patronage system.[72] In *the Republic of Korea*, reforms
of the bureaucratic apparatus has been a continuing theme since
the 1961 coup. The previous administrative system was noto-
rious for its corruption and self-indulgent practices. The new go-
vernment established an investigating committee to wipe out
favouritism and weed out corrupt government employees. A
number of steps were taken to improve the quality of per-
sonnel and the resulting administration has been described as a
"mature, complex, efficient, and powerful organisation, while
other political and social institutions remain in a state of
underdevelopment."[73]

[71]Onojre D. Corpiz, *The Bureaucracy in the Philippines*, Manila, College
of Public Administration, 1957. Jose V. Abueva and R.P. Guzman,
Foundations and Dynamics of Philippine Government and Politics, Manila,
1969. Raul S. Manglapus, *Phillippines, The Silenced Democracy*,
Orbis B.Ks, 1976. Albina M. Dans, The Philippine Civil Service: Structure
and Policies (Mimeo), Manila, College of Public Administration, 1977.

[72]Karl D. Jackson and L.W. Pye (Eds.), *Poltical Power and Communi-
cation in Indonesia*, Berkeley, University of California Press, 1978. Hahn-
Been lee and A.C. Samonte (Eds.), *Administrative Reforms in Asia*, Manila,
EROPA, 1970. G.M. Kahin (Ed.), *Major Governments of Asia*, New York,
Cornell, 1963. Jeanne S. Mintz, *Indonesia: A Profile*, New York, D. Van
Nostrand, 1961.

[73]Chae-Jin Lee and Dong-Suh Back, "Political Perception of Bureaucratic
Elite in Korea," *Korea Journal*, 13, 1973, pp. 29-41. Se-Jin Kim and C.H.
Cho (Eds.), *Government and Politics of Korea*, Silver Springs, Research
Institute, 1972. Edward Reynolds Wright (Ed), *Korean Politics in Transition*
London, University of Washington Press, 1975, Part II. Pak Mun-OK,
The Korean Government, Seoul, Pak Yongsa, 1964. Hahn-been Lee, *Time,
Change and Administration*, Honolulu, East-West Centre Press, 1968.

The central theme, as we find, of the current administrative philosophy as also its operative technology the world over is to fashion personnel systems professionally well-equipped, sharp-edged in efficiency and responsive to popular aspirations. In modernising the administration's delivery system, unless the personnel capabilities—their skillmix, motivation, commitment, etc., match the organisational goals, it is difficult to achieve any break-through. The nature of governmental functions having changed, particularly in the wake of the new developmental challenges and the emerging international economic order, the problems of personnel administration are to be looked at in a different perspective. How to bring about efficiency in administration in the changing environment has become the major concern. Central personnel agencies are performing manifold roles in this direction and the subsequent chapters deal in detail with their philosophy, functioning and operational aspects.

2
Central Personnel Agencies : Role and Responsibilities

A sound personnel system is a plan of action, formal or informal, devised by management to aid in achieving the objectives which are normally predetermined. Scholars agree that the fundamental value of a personnel programme is that it helps to build a cooperative spirit among employees, who are willing to respond in the form of increased output to management's leadership regarding the common economic and personnel aims of the organisation.[1] It is, however, apparent that both the employer's and employee's interests are advanced by efficient personnel administration. The attainment of objectives as well as the performance of personnel function is greatly conditioned by personnel practices. Policies, therefore, should be based on a careful analysis of the objectives and ideals of the organisation and must be definite, unambiguous, complete and accurately stated.[2] In order that such policies are properly maintained after they are established, it is desirable to have a plan of control over the personnel policies which should

[1]V.D. Dudeja, "Personnel Management—An Investigation", *Management Review*, 5(3)78, pp. 23-26. Philip Sadler, "Personnel Policy in a Changing Society," *Personnel Management* 6(4), April 74, pp. 26-9. D.J. Kelly, "Personnel: A Perspective", *Administration*, 22(2), Summer 74, pp. 122-7.

[2]A.J. Daltas and H.M. Schwartz, "Towards Human Resources Management", *Personnel Journal*, 55(12) Dec. 76, pp. 628-30. Feed K. Foulkes, "The Expanding Role of the Personnel Function," *Harvard Business Review*, Mar-April, 75, pp. 71-84. Rola Womack and others "Personnel Management in the Public Service", *Personnel Management*, February, 1973, pp. 22-5.

be reviewed periodically and kept abreast of the latest developments through : (a) review by committees, (b) suggestion systems, (c) citizen's reactions, (d) periodic audits, (e) employees grievances and executive reports. In many countries, as administration came of age, the state had to face new problems in its relations with its officials, thus necessitating more attention on policy matters of civil service. In some cases, this new task was taken up by existing agencies, particularly by certain treasury bureau or public service commissions. Usually some new bodies were also set up charged with planning and co-ordinating the action of the various departments.[3] During the First World War, this movement gained further momentum and since 1945 became widely prevalent in most of the countries of the world. The desire to improve the working of the services by a more methodical and unified control explains the powers which are usually granted to these nodal agencies. The policy in many countries had been not to merge into one vast body the various departmental agencies but to lay down rules which they were supposed to apply to and supervise their activities. In some new states where civil service problems are of special importance, these agencies have been placed under the authority of a Civil Service Minister in order to give them more authority backing.[4] Personnel and human resources administration is inherent in all aspects of administration and even the specific technical personnel functions are no longer assigned to lower levels of managerial activities. The performance of the personnel functions is seriously handicapped by: (a) inadequate appreciation of some of the basic problems of personnel management, (b) lack of forward planning resulting in timely corrective measures, (c) lack of appropriate control and super-

[3]United Nations, *The Central Organs of theCivil Service in the Developing Countries*, New York, 1969, p. 7. C.E. Teasley, "A Systems Approach to Public Personnel Administration: Some Implications for Research and Practice," *Midwest Review of Public Administration*, Vol. X(1), March 76, pp. 3-13. Robert R. Guthrie, "Personnel's Emerging Role," *Personnel Journal* 53(9), Sept. 1974, pp. 657-61.

[4]Rudolph and S.K. Rudolph, *Public Administration in South and Southeast Asia*, Cambridge, 1958. Robert E. Boynton and H.C. White, "Functions of Personnel Administration: Management's View in a Federal Installation", *Public Personnel Management*, Jan.-Feb., 1973.

vision from multiple points. Therefore, for proper performance of personnel functions, properly structured personnel agencies are suitably located and staffed by competent personnel.[5]

Decentralisation in administration can take a variety of forms. The possibilities of personnel decentralisation in a federal government have not received bold experimental attention. The pleas for uniformity and centralisation are almost dominant when thrown into competition with the more complex traits of diversity and decentralisation. At state and local levels the subject of decentralised personnel administration has hardly received any attention at all.[6] Whatever form or shape the central personnel agencies take, the vast expansion of their functions during recent years is evident. In sharp contrast to the original examination conducting agencies, the modern agency is a principal entity of government wherever it operates. In pursuing their functions, collaboration with other bodies or advisory groups is inevitable. A number of countries utilise the professional adviser given by advisory committees or groups as a means for policy consultation. Such arrangements have "generally contributed to good communication, to better understanding of policy and problems and to orderly implementation of change.[7] It is generally agreed that personnel administration is a function of management which is responsible to the chief executive. "A single director is better able than a commission to serve the needs of the departments and to aid them in developing high personnel standard".[8] In many countries though the civil service commission as an institution still

[5]R.L. Pattenande,"Increasing the Importance of Personnel: A Strategy", *Personnel Journal*, 54(8), Aug. 75, pp. 451-3. R.L. Watts, *Administration in Federal Systems*, London, 1970, p. 33.

[6]P.L. Chirayath, "Priorities in Personnel Management", *Integrated Management*, August 73, p. 37-39. Richard Gable, *The Teaching of Comparative Development Administration, the Report of a Survey* (Mimeo), 1971, p. 3. Ishwar Dayal, "Change in Administration, Directions and Organisation Planning," *Training Abstract* 26, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, Cabinet Secretariat, New Delhi.

[7]Refer Theodore H. Lange, *Public Personnel Councils*, Personnel Report No. 583, Chicago, International Personnel Management Association, 1958.

[8]J. Carson and J, Harris, *Public Administration in Modern Society*, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1963, p. 42.

predominates, both the newer and several reorganised systems have a director of personnel who has direct relationship with the chief executive.[9] In many countries, policy and appellate responsibility is usually placed in a personnel board or commission, of which the personnel director may either be a chairman or an executive officer. Many organisations have experimented with single personnel administrator backed up by a citizen policy board. In this form, there is no serious erosion of the merit concept and, in some cases, it seems to have been strengthened. O. Glenn Stahl offers the following model plan of personnel organisation that seeks to preserve both the merit principle and executive responsibility:[10]

1. A single personnel administrator:

   (a) would report directly to the chief executive;
   (b) would be appointed by the chief executive from the most highly qualified persons who could be referred by a panel of unimpeachable public and private leaders, on the basis of specified standards of ability, training and experience;
   (c) would be removable only on the ground of poor performance or conduct with the same procedural safeguards applicable to other civil servants; and
   (d) would have responsibility for development and administration of a full range of personnel policies and programmes.

2. Major policy decisions, in the form of rules or regulations, would require the approval of the chief executive.
3. A part-time, staggered term, non-partisan (without regard to party application), personnel advisory board:

   (a) would be appointed by the chief executive from specified prestige sources (such as university

[9]G.E. Caiden, "The Independent Central Personnel Agency: The Experience of the Commonwealth Public Service of Australia", *Public Administration*, Vol. 42, Summer 1964, pp. 30-61."Development of Administrators in Selected Countries", Training Monograph No. 13, New Delhi, 1972.

[10]O. Glenn Stahl, *Public Personnel Administration*, New York, Harper & Row, 1976, p. 431

presidents, distinguished professors, corporation presidents) etc.; and

(b) would perform the following functions:

advise the personnel administrator and the chief executive on all major policy issues under consideration, and

whenever it saw fit, report independently and publicly its views on such policy proposals and decisions.

In the above plan, policy development would be the task of a professional staff and this could take place side by side without impairing the executive power to act. The above plan keeps the personnel function as a unified area, with one central agency responsible to the chief executive. The web of interrelationships that always characterises personnel policy issues and day to day administration would be under unified direction and control so that responsibility is better fixed.[11]

Central personnel agencies had been performing different functions at different times. At the beginning of this century, the managers were called 'welfare secretaries' because their primary concern was employee welfare at work. In later years, the duties changed so much so that Dalton MacFarland called the personnel department the organisation's 'trash can', a dumping ground for all the unimportant tasks. With the strengthening of the bargaining power and postwar compulsions personnel took on a bigger role and the role of these agencies considerably increased. To further merit system, the central personnel agency does public relations work also in locating the right type of personnel. It expands the merit system upward, outward and downward by planning particular positions and categories of jobs. It helps to analyse positions to determine requirements for competency and gives technical advice to the departments on how to set up and run personnel programmes peculiar to the departments. Merit system agencies which have

[11]O. Glenn Stahl, *op. cit.* H.M. Mathur, "Some Civil Service Attitudes Inappropriate in the Development Context: Using Training as a Correctional Device", in Ramesh K. Arora *et al, The Indian Administrative System,* New Delhi, Associated, 1978, pp. 82-96.

been organised in many countries of the world in recent years have laid stress on executive responsibility for personnel management. "The present trend is clear", says William J. Ronaw, "the states are developing varied organisations but the movement is in the direction of the single state personnel administrator, responsible to the chief executive for successful administration of the state merit system."[12] The commission form has been very popular but partly because of poor or unimaginative performance, and often due to lack of funds or remoteness from day to day operating problems, the independent commissions have been the target of much complaint. There are many arguments for and against executive control of the personnel function and at times extreme positions have been taken regarding abolition or retention of the commission form of organisations.

A high level committee which looked into personnel system of a developing country [13] suggested that the central personnel agency should concern itself only with formulating personnel rules, with working out policy statements and suggestions designed to guide the departments in dealing with individual cases, with inducing the departments to recognise personnel problems and making provisions for coping with them, with doing work that cuts across departmental lines and with suitable leadership in the field of personnel management. It recommended the following nine functions which deserve central attention and which should be entrusted to the central personnel agency:

(a) Personnel policies;
(b) Manpower planning;
(c) Career development;
(d) Overall aspects of training;
(e) Service rules;
(f) Management of inter-ministry services;
(g) Postings to key positions;

[12]Temporary State Commission on Coordination of State Activities, *Staff Report on the Development of Civil Service*, State of New York Legislative, Document No. 42 (1953), p. 132.

[13]*Report of the Study Team on Personnel Administration*, Administrative Reforms Commission; August, 1967, Government of India, New Delhi (Chairman: R.K. Patil), p. 170.

(*h*) Welfare of the employees: and

(*i*) Research in personnel management and problems of government.

A very distinguished scholar[11] has described the typical functions that the modern central personnel agency must be prepared to perform as follows:

Policies and instructions—developing these in all areas of personnel administration, for management approval and promulgating them in usable form;

Job analysis and evaluation—assisting supervisers in developing facts about new or changed positions, developing or interpreting class standards;

Staffing, recruitment, promotions and placement.

Salary and wage administration;

Employee services and working conditions counselling;

Performance standards and evaluation;

Staff training and development;

Employees' rights and obligations—keeping employees informed of various rights and obligations pertaining to their public employment status;

Union bargaining and agreements;

Maintaining statistical records on employee population, turnover, and movement. Reporting to top management, supervisors and employees on all developments that affect or potentially affect the human resources and morale of the agency;

Personnel research, conducting attitude surveys, improving forms and procedures;

Public relations.

Location of the central personnel agency has to be different in different administrative systems. Among the important alternatives available are: (*a*) it may be placed under the chief

[11]O. Glenn Stahl, *Public Personnel Administration, op. cit.*, p. 43. Theodore H. Lang, *Public Personnel Councils*, Personnel Report No. 583, Chicago, International Personnel Management Association, 1958.

executive direct, (b) it may be constituted as an independent ministry or (c) it may be a part of the Ministry of Interior or Home Affairs. There are pros and cons of each alternative but the last alternative is more popular as the Interior commands prestige in most countries, and the agency is in a position to perform its leadership role more effectively.[15] The structure and manning of the agency is a matter of detail which each country has to go into according to its requirements. In the next chapter, a brief description of the existing arrangements in twenty-two countries has been made.

The staff selected to man different personnel units should be well-equipped to perform their functions. Today, it is possible to have specialists in different aspects of personnel administration, therefore, it is possible to get specialists for different wings of the agency and all personnel units at different levels could be manned by administrators having the requisite professional competence. In the long run, the agency would have to develop a cadre of personnel with diverse types of training and experience. It is not so much the academic attainment or high level of specialisation as practical experience of actual work situations coupled with proper orientation and training that would be crucial for the smooth and successful functioning of the personnel departments.[16]

Personnel administration of different countries cannot be compared for a variety of reasons. For example, recruitment to civil service is not uniform in all the countries as there are variations in meanings and scope attached to the word, 'civil service'. Assumptions regarding appropriate recruitment qualifications characteristically vary between different types of employees even within a single agency and each of those competing assumptions may have simultaneously positive and negative consequences for the survival and wellbeing of the agency itself. The concept generally used is 'government service' which

[15]Refer John F. Mec (Ed.), *Personnel Handbook*, New York, The Ronald Press Company, 1955. *U.N. Handbook of Training in the Public Service*, New York, 1966.

[16]W.D. Heisel, "The Personnel Revolution: An Optimist's View", *Public Personnel Journal*, 5(4) August 1976, pp. 234-8. Richard W. Beatley, "Personnel Systems and Human Performance", *Personnel Journal*, April 1973, pp. 307-12.

in some countries covers only civil and defence services and in others covers even judicial or state owned corporations.[17] The political role of the bureaucracy varies from country to country and is intimately related to variations in the political systems amongthe developed and developing countries. The comparative study methodology has not yet advanced enough to provide satisfactory answers to many questions in the full range of the existing political systems. The absence or inadequacy of reliable information on bureaucratic structures and behaviour is another handicap. Again, systems can be studied from a number of different, although not necessarily mutually exclusive, perspectives. In analysing bureaucracy, its role as a power resource in the society has to be taken into account and treated as a part of the social system. The relations of bureaucratic problems cannot be found within the bureaucratic system and the focus of inquiry has to be enlarged to treat bureaucracy as one component of forces at work in society.

Limitations of Evolving Standards

At times, there are expectations that miracles can be accomplished by sound personnel policies ignoring the fact that there are many inbuilt problems which are beyond the control of the organisation, *viz.*,

(a) Personnel policies are heavily influenced by future requirements and since the future can seldom be forecast with reasonable accuracy, plans do not always work out as intended.[18]

(b) Programmes and policies are not tailor-made and since it is not possible to devise a system which will fit all possible individual variations, it is risky to rely entirely on standard methods for the solution of personnel pro-

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[17]*Handbook of Civil Service: Laws and Practices*, New York, U.N., 1966. *A Handbook of Public Administration: Current Concepts and Practices with Special Reference to Developing Countries*, New York, U.N., 1961.

[18]C.Y. Wu, "Training in Public Administration for Development—Some Lessons of International Co-operation", *Journal of Administration Overseas*, 1971, pp. 12-21. Alan K. Campbell, "Revitalizing the Federal Personnel System", *Public Personnel Management*, 7(b) Jan-Feb, 1978, pp. 59-64.

blems.[19]

(c) Time and resources for building a sound system is always a constraint. It is often necessary to proceed under the less favourable conditions.[20]

(d) Human nature with all its pitfalls cannot be changed and these shortcomings have to be accommodated.

SALIENT PERSONNEL POLICIES AND PRACTICES

After defining the role of the central personnel agencies in personnel administration, it may be useful to briefly look into the existing practices in various countries.[21] Some important aspects of personnel administration are being discussed below:

Recruitment

Bureaucracies are mostly designed for the efficient implementation of public; policies, therefore, officials are normally recruited on the basis of technical qualifications rather than personal loyalties, kinship affiliations or political considerations. The objective of having one impartial civil service is to find out a mechanism which can help in implementing various policies, both impartially and continuously, within the framework of the limits laid down by the party in power. Problems connected with recruitment have beome quite complicated as a result of the enormous growth of personnelthe world over. The proliferation of personnel in all the countries included in this study is mainly due to the expanding functions of the state, lack of adequate advance personnel planning, lack of a close and

[19]Leon C. Megginson. *Personnel and Human Resources Administration,* Ontario, Richard, 1977, Part II. Dale Yoder, *Personnel Principles and Policies,* Englewood, Prentice Hall, 1959, Ch. XXI. T.P. Lyons, *The Personnel Function in a Changing Environment,* New York, Pitman, 1971, Ch. XV.

[20]J.E. Hodgetts, "The Public Service: Its Past and the Challenge of Its Future", *Canadian Public Administration,* Vol XXVII, 1974, pp. 17-25. Also *New Vistas in Administration,* Committee on Case Studies, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi, 1976.

[21]Richard L. Schott, "Professional and the Public Service: Time for Some Second Thoughts", *Midwest Review of Public Administration,* 12(1) March 78, pp. 12-18. *New Challenges in Administration,* and *Administrators in Action,* Committee on Case Studies, Indian Institute of Public Administration, New Delhi, 1972.

centralised check on efficiency, and unchecked growth adversely affecting the financial resources.[22]

Public Service Commissions: In U.K., Canada, Nepal, Australia, and some other countries appointments to the Civil Service Commissions are made by the political executive but normally the convention is to appoint non-political persons on merit. Most of the Commonwealth countries, as well as other states, which have modelled themselves on the British practices, do not have a single organ for civil service matters but two : the first restricted in its action to recruitment operations (the Civil Service Commission), the other embracing on a wider scale the problems of the metropolitan public service (The Treasury).[23] We have already referred to the Post-Fulton developments in Britain where the role of the Public Service Commission has been considerably reduced. In India and Sri Lanka, the constitution provides for an independent Public Service Commission for the purpose of recruitment to all civil posts with certain exceptions and for advice on promotion and disciplinary matters, etc. In the Philippines there is a Civil Service Commission headed by a Commissioner and the role of the Commission has been recently expanded. The Prime Minister and the Deputy Prime Minister are the exofficio Chairman and the Vice-chairman of the Commission in Thailand. The National Personnel Authority in Japan (Jinji-In) has been modelled after the U.S. Public Service Commission. In Australia, the responsibility for the recruitment of both permanent and temporary staff is vested in the Public Service Board. In Kenya, the Public Service Commission is an inde-

[22]*Report of the Committee on Recruitment Policy and Selection Methods*, U.P.S.C., 1976, p. 25, J.A. Ogundele,"The Higher Civil Servants and Training Attitudes, Expectations and Frustrations,"*Quarterly Journal of Administration*, Oct. 1973, pp. 41-48.

[23]*Refer Report of the Committee of Enquiry on the Method 11 System of Selection 1969* (Chairman: Davies), HMSO, London, and the Memorandum on "Appointments in Administration (1975)" issued by the U.K. Civil Service Commission. Sir George Mullaby, "The Civil Service Commission, its Place in the Machinery of Government", *Public Administration*, London, 1964, p. 2. Wilson A. Jeyaratnam, "The Public Service Commission and Ministerial Responsibility: the Ceylonese Experience",*Public Administration*, Vol. 46, Spring 1968, pp. 81-93.

pendent body deriving its authority from the constitution and is not subject to any other authority in the performance of its functions. In Ghana there is a specific provision in the Civil Service Act which authorises the President to be the sole appointing authority who may delegate his authority to the Civil Service Commission or to departmental heads. The Iranian public service is in an evolutionary stage, merit system had been introduced under the State employment law a few years ago.

Education: Recruitment is normally done in most of the countries in the developed and developing world on the basis of a competitive examination and certain basic minimum qualifications are prescribed. The French system combines in a unique way the British fondness for wide liberal education with the American emphasis on the study of science. In Thailand, recruitment and placement are related to the degree and areas of formal education. In the Federal Republic of Germany, the qualifications required for the higher service are a degree in law, social science or technology. The candidates have to pass an examination and enter on a training programme in the government departments for three years, at the end of which they have to take a second examination. In Japan, recruitment is linked with three distinct levels of education; college graduates who appear for the senior entrance examination are tested for their general knowledge and intelligence as well as their knowledge of specialised subjects.[24] In Canada, the educational requirements are a degree for the scientific and professional and administrative and foreign service categories. In Malaysia, for Division I job, the basic educational requirement is an Honours degree. In India, the minimum educational qualification for the higher civil service is a University graduate (honours) degree in social /physical science or technology (now medicine added). In the Philippines, the classification plan for each occupational group lays down educational and other requirements for each class or position. In

[24]Paul S. Kuin, "Japan's National Civil Service Commission: Its Origin and Structure", *Public Administration*, Vol. 48, Winter 1970, pp. 405-21. Mattei Dogan (Ed.), *The Mandarins of Western Europe: the Political Role of Top Civil Servants*, New York, Sage, 1975, Ch. III.

USA, recruitment is primarily at the levels of output from the educational system. The system of selection for the civil service in UK now in use is fundamentally different from the pre-war system. It is called Method II. It consists of three stages: (*a*) qualifying tests, (*b*) series of tests and interviews by the Civil Service Selection Board lasting two full days, and (*c*) interviews by the Final Selection Board. But after Fulton Committee recommendations, this has been abolished. Indonesia faced the problem of trained personnel in the civil service because of the abundance of untrained civil servants who had been recruited into civil service as a reward for their services in the revolutionary war of 1945-49.

Experience : Many considerations weigh in selecting the right type of personnel and there are different criteria in different countries. In USA even for senior positions, limited recruitment takes place but both education and experience are insisted upon. The total educational and experience background must clearly demonstrate the ability to perform administrative, supervisory, managerial or professional work of a high level of efficiency and responsibility, commensurate with the salary level. In UK, the essential purpose of recruitment is to keep up to the required strength a group of civil servants who are interchangeable and can be given a large variety of assignments. In France a thorough knowledge of the personnel requirements is a prerequisite but the criteria in selecting the higher administrators are different and entry is preceded by a long period of training. In Canada, recruitment is directed so as to bring in fresh entrants to different points of the whole spectrum of grades in all the operations. Even in the highest pay range, it is estimated that some 15 to 20 per cent of the appointments are made from outside the civil service. In West Germany the recruitment of general administrators is through a process which combines examination as well as training. In Nigeria, there is very little cross occupational movement.[25]

[25]Adebye Adedeji, "The Federal and State Civil Services", *Quarterly Journal of Administration*, Institute of Administration, University of Ife, Oct., 1970.

Competitions : In Japan, and in many other countries initial recruitment is by merit in open competitive examination which consists of a combination of two or more of tests. In Canada, in 1882, in response to the Report of a highly critical Royal Commission, competitive examinations for entry to the public service were established. Unfortunately, a candidate was not barred from entry simply because he failed in the examinations—in fact, he could write the examinations as frequently as necessary in order to pass. Meanwhile, he continued his employment. Another Royal Commission in 1907 declared the examination system worthless and the Laurier Government passed another Civil Service Act in 1908. This Act established that the Civil Service Commission operate independently and that it conduct competitive examinations. However, by 1971 the Commission reported in its annual report that the competitive examination system was a dead letter. The pressures of World War I and the realisation that patronage did not lead to a quality public service led to the creation, of a new Civil Service Act in 1921. In India, both at the Centre and in the States, recruitment at the intake level to the administrative and executive cadres is made on the basis of competitive written examinations supplemented by a personality test. In Thailand, the method of 'selective' examination is used in a limited form for recruitment to posts, involving specialised knowledge in a particular field. In the Philippines, vacancies are filled only by those certified as eligible by the Bureau of Civil Service. The examinations to a position in a competitive or classified service are made on the basis of an appropriate examination provided for such position. In the Republic of Korea, both general education and vocational training is taken into consideration to the same extent. In Pakistan a single examination serves as a basis for recruitment to the premier generalist service and also to a number of less popular central or federal services and there is no lateral entry. In France, entry is multi-point, that is, separately to each of the four classes. Legislation requires that admission be contingent on the outcome of a list for appointments to class A and B and also for C and D unless,

special regulations prescribe otherwise[26] In Iran, recruitment procedures have not been centralised but special authorities have been set up on an agency basis. In Tanzania aptitude tests are necessary besides competition where it is proposed to select candidates for training in the acquisition of specialised skills and where it is necessary for them to demonstrate their aptitude for these jobs.

Classification and Career Systems

A career system is one in which a hierarchically organised group includes posts at different levels. The whole professional life is spent in the group, successively occupying different posts and rising from one level to another. The contract or position system is one in which the official is recruited for a particular job in which he will remain as long as he is a member of the administrative service. In USA, contract system is traditional in the sense that the career pattern is incompatible with the spoils system which had been in operation for a century. In the UK, the Fulton Committee recommended that all classes should be abolished and replaced by a single, unified grading structure in the non-industrial part. The correct grading of each post should be determined by job evaluation. The government accepted the recommendation and as a result the administrative group came into existence in 1971. In the Federal Republic of Germany, each of the four classes of the service provides a self-contained career but a limited degree of promotion is possible from one class to another subject to a minimum period of service in the lower class and the passing of a promotion examination. In Iran, there are twelve grades divided into four classes. The allocation of posts to classes is intended to operate on a basis of job classification. In Nepal, there are general services, six technical services, a judicial service

[26]F. Ridley and J. Blondel, *Public Administration in France*, London, 1964, Ch.II. Roger Gregoire, *The French Civil Service*, Brussels, IIAS, 1964. Brian Chapman, *The Profession of Government,The Public Service in Europe*, London, Allen & Unwin, 1959. B C. Mathur, "Civil Service Training in France", *Training Monograph 5*; M. Wadhwani, "Training of Civil Servants in United Kingdom", *Training Monograph* 12, Training Division, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, Cabinet Secretariat, New Delhi.

and a foreign service. The French civil service is a fragmented civil service, each Ministry having own superior corps to which are entrusted the higher rungs of the field administration as well as the tasks of inspection, control and direction. Detailed and specific descriptions of duties do not exist. The concept of a civil career is comparable with its military counterpart. Entry into the civil service presupposes, an initial and permanent choice. The service is divided into 6 categories in Canada, namely, executive, scientific and professional, administration and foreign service, technical, administrative support and operational. The structure of the Canadian civil service is 'job oriented'; rank and classification reside in the job, and not in the man. Promotion, reassignment and transfer are made in Japan through an evaluation based on their actual work performance from among those employees who met certain prescribed qualification standards. In West Germany, there are four classes in the federal service and the simple service, the middle service, the elevated service, and the higher service and there is difference in the nature of work enstruted to them. In Malaysia, the federal service is divided into 5 broad categories, *viz.*, division I, II, III, IV and the industrial and manual group, criteria for this classification is, educational qualifications required for admission rather than pay. In Australia, the Commonwealth Service is sub-divided into four divisions, and classification is carried out by the Board's classifier. In Tanzania, one of the considerations of evolving a structure is to make optimum use of available local, trained manpower. In Ghana, posts are classified for different purposes, in different ways, which cut across one another to a considerable extent. They include established and unestablished posts; general and departmental posts, pensionable and un-pensionable posts.[27] In the Philippines the positions are classified into career service and non-career service. Promotion Boards are formed to formulate criteria for evaluation, conduct tests and or interviews; and make

[27]K.A. Owusu-Ansah, *et al.*, *A Survey into the Specific Aspects of the Ghana Civil Service Structure and Procedures*, GIMPA, Ach, 1975. *Introduction and Administration of Position Classification and Pay Plans*, New York, United Nations, 1976. Richard Symonds, *The British and Their Successors: A Study in the Development of the Government Services in the New States*, London, Faber and Faber, 1966, Part II.

systematic assessment of training and experience. The civil service in India is organised into four grades, corresponding, in a descending order, to differentiate in the work performed and the qualifications required.[28] A survey conducted by the National Commission for the reorganisation of the government apparatus in Indonesia showed that organisational structures were in total chaos—nomenclatures confusing, systems and functions excessively complicated and cumbersome. The Kenya civil service is divided into a recognisable example of the three-tier pattern and in Korea into two broad categories. In Pakistan as in India recruits are taken at three main levels of competence and normally expect to spend their working life in a career corresponding to that level, with the exceptionally competent. The new civil service structure in Pakistan is embodied in the Civil Servants Ordinance, 1973 (XIV of 1973), Service Tribunals Ordinance, 1973, the Federal Public Service Commission Ordinance, 1973, orders published by the Cabinet Secretariat, 1973, etc. The tradition of reserved posts was continued. All Pakistani services were merged into the All Pakistan Unified Grades, which combines both rank-in person with rank-in position features.[29] In Nepal, the Civil Service Act 1956 and the Civil Service Rules 1956 regulate the service conditions. There are four classes of gazetted officers, six technical services, a judicial and foreign service. The Pereira Commission reported the existence of no less than 400 combinations of grades in Sri Lanka. In Thailand, by a Royal Decree of January 1979, position classification has been introduced. The classifying of posts into occupational class series and levels has been entrusted to the civil service commission. According to the new classification plan, all the civil servants will be

[28]Indian Institute of Public Administration, *Position Classification Survey (a feasibility report)*, New Delhi, 1968.

[29]*Report of the Working Group in the Reorganisation of the Public Service Structure in Pakistan*, Karachi, July, 1969. *Report of the Study Group on Toning up of Provincial Administration*, Lahore, Pakistan, Administrative Staff College, 1972. G. Ahmed, "Changes in the Administrative Organisation of the Government of Pakistan since 1953," *Public Administration*, London, Vol. 39, 1961, pp. 353-54. Gilbert B. Siegel and Kleber Nasciemento, "Formalism in Brazilian Administrative Reform: The Example of Position Classification," *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, No. 3, 1965, pp. 175-184.

fitted in level 1 to level 11. In Bangladesh, it has been decided to have one unified civil service structure with 13 functional cadres.

Manpower Planning

Personnel planning is now becoming popular and necessary as organisations try to cope with the increasingly complex socio-cultural, legal-political and economic environments. A relatively new concept in personnel planning is *human resource accounting* which treats employees as capital assets in much the same way that plant and equipment are presently treated. Consequently the objectives are to relate human resource needs to the overall activities of an organisation, make long-range estimates of specifics—as resources.[30] In UK, the central planning machinery has been merged into the Treasury when its title was 'Home and Overseas Planning Staff' and it was subsequently divided in 1959 into National Resources Division andt he Overseas Coordination Division. The Fulton Committee recommended setting up of planning units in individual departments to gaze into and prepare for the future. Performance appraisal system has been introduced in the United States to; (*a*) provide for periodic appraisal of job performance of employees; (*b*) encourage employee participation in establishing performance standards and (*c*) use the results of performance appraisals as a basis for training, rewarding, reasignsing promoting reducing in grade, etc. The regulations are prescribed by the Office of Personnel Management.

In Thailand there is a single overall frame in which there is an overview of human resources, evaluation starting from demographic consideration to employment situation. In Sri Lanka, the mechanism for planning for higher and middle level manpower requirements need considerable strengthening. Apart from the domestic demand for personnel at these levels, there is

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[30]*Manpower Assessment and Planning : A Review of Past and New Problems and Approaches,* (Mimeo), Geneva, 1975. NATO, *Manpower Planning Models,* Proceedings of a Conference, English Universities Press, 1974. Grahm Pyatt and Erick Thorbecke, *Planning Techniques for a Better Future,* International Labour Office, Labour Office, 1976.. Richard N. Octoway, (Ed.), *Humanizing the Workplace,* London, Croom Helm, 1977, Ch. VII.

also an external pull, particularly from the Middle East for middle-level personnel. The Pakistan Federal Public Service Commission has continuously emphasised the need of manpower planning. In Japan, based on manpower assessments and predictions, both in terms of aggregate volume and structure, the government formulates the basic plans for employment and manpower policies. In Canada, the public service commission has initiated a system known as the continuous staffing process to speed up recruitment and selection. This involves making up 'inventories' of the main occupational groups and of available candidates outside the service who are qualified for specific posts within them.[31] There is a lot of uncertainty about the operational factors of many of the manpower plans in a large number of developing countries. The awareness of the scarcity of educated and skilled manpower in Africa, for example, was mainly responsible for the manpower surveys. The objectives of the surveys included the provision of guidelines for educational expansion, determining the priorities and prospects for localising skilled jobs, especially in the civil service, and the establishment of priorities for training schemes. In Tanzania, the Directorate of Planning was brought into the office of the President and became the Directorate of Development and Planning. The manpower planning division is a compact unit in the directorate. In Nigeria, the Ashby Commission recommended setting up of a National Manpower Board which works under the umbrella of the National Economic Council which is the supreme economic policy formulating body. In Ghana, a Manpower Board was established in 1968 of which the Manpower Planning Secretariat is the functional unit to go into manpower needs. In India, the Directorate of Manpower now forms a part of the Planning Commission (February 1973) and has been merged into the enlarged Employment and Manpower Planning Division, which takes an integrated view on the manpower planning. In Ghana, a major manpower survey programme

[31]John J. Carson and William McCloskey, "Manpower and Educational Planning in the Canadian Federal Public Service", *Administration*. 22(3), Autumn 74, pp. 271-77. E.H. Burack and T.D. Gutteridge, "Institutional Manpower Planning, Rhetoric versus Reality", *California Management Review*, 20(3) Spring 1978, pp. 13-22. George Odiorne, *Personnel Administration by Objectives*. Homewood Richard. 1971. Ch. 18.

was carried through in 1960 under the technical assistance arrangements with the Ford Foundation. In Australia, Commonwealth Public Service Board; in Philippines, National Manpower and Youth Council; in Nepal, Department of Public Administration in the Ministry of Home Affairs; in Kenya the Directorate of Personnel (which is a part of the office of the President) and in Indonesia, an Inventory Research Team look after future manpower needs of civil services.[32]

Training

There is growing awareness among the policy makers that the remedy for several current administrative ills and maladies lies in improving the quality of senior administrative personnel.[33] In Australia, various aspects of the personnel system militate against the establishment of a centrally controlled service wide training scheme for the development of potential senior administrators and one of the notable characteristics of training in the service is its decentralisation. The Public Service Board advises, coordinates, supplements and experiments as well as provides those training services which can most efficiently be provided as centralised functions. In Canada, the Treasury Board makes the policy and fixes the priorities, including the balance between central and departmental training. In United Kingdom, as

[32]George P. Rothman, "Manpower Planning for Senior Positions in the Australian Public Service," *Public Administration* (Australia), 32(2), June 1974, pp. 180-6. A.K. Basak, "Organisational Arrangements for Manpower Planning in India", *Training Monograph No. 21*, Deptt. of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, New Delhi, 1978. S. Balasubramanian, "An Approach to Personnel Management for the Future", *Indian Management*, 15 (5), May 1976, pp. 21-25.

[33]T.N. Chaturvedi, "Institution Building for Training in Administration", *Management in Government*, Vol. 11, No. 1, 1970, pp. 29-40. *Report of the Inter-regional Seminar on the Development of Senior Administrators in the Public Service of Developing Countries*, New York, United Nations, 1969, p. 24. A.C. Baker (ed.), *Training for Public Administration* (Report of the 1st Commonwealth Regional Seminar on Training for Public Administration in East, Central South Africa and Mauritius), Nairobi, Kenya Institute of Administration, 1969. Martin J. Cannon, "Attitude of Government Executive Toward Management Training", *Public Personnel Management*, Jan-Feb., 1975, pp.63-68. Bernard Schaffer, *Administrative Training and Development: A Comparative Study of East Africa, Zambia, Pakistan and India*, New York, Praeger, 1974, Ch. I.

recommended by the Fulton Committee, the Civil Service College founded in 1970 spearheads the training activities. In Malaysia, the Federal Establishment office is the central training agency responsible for sponsoring in-service training for all common-user services. Most of the departments conduct some kind of systematic training for their specialist and technical staff, some using sophisticated techniques and others following simple methods. In Indonesia, by law it is the function of the National Institute of Administration to coordinate management training in the bureaucracy but other agencies have been reluctant to recognise the functional authority of the Institute in this matter. In France, candidates receive training at the National School of Administration for about two and a half years and the training is a combination of general and special courses. Fulton Committee observed, "The achievement of the French Civil Service with the Ecole Nationale d'Administration, initiated in varying degrees by some other European countries, is to have broken away from the traditional mould and created a vocational education for a modern civil service. Administration remains an important subject at the ENA because French administration still has a formal and juridical framework but it is combined with the onward-looking discipline relevant to the work of civil services with a positive role in modern society."[34]

In USA, training is governed by the Government Employees Training Act and most of it is departmental. In selecting an employee for training the agency considers: (a) the extent to which the current skills, knowledge and activities of the employees may be utilised in the new position; (b) the employee's capability to learn skills and acquire knowledge and activities needed in the new position, and (c) the benefits to the government

[34]A. Adedeji, "Workshops for Heads of Personnel Agencies: High Level Training Needs in Public Administration," *African Administrative Studies*, December 1970, pp. 1-6. W.W. Claycombe, *et al*, "An Evaluation of Supervisory Skills to Determine Training Needs," *Personnel Journal*, March 1976, pp. 116-20. John D. Chick, "Some Problems of Administrative Training: The North Nigerian Experience," *Journal of Administration Overseas*, April, 1969, pp. 97-110. Prashasan, "Civil Service Training in Nepal," *Nepalese Journal of Public Administration*, April 1970. A.R. Hoyle, "Some Deficiencies in the Training of Senior Administrators for Developing Countries", *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 1974, No. 4,

which would result from retaining the employee in the Federal
Service. In 1962, Philippine Executive Academy was set
up for providing high-level training for senior executives from
the private and public sectors. In Ghana, Nigeria and Tanzania,
training is provided for graduates already selected for appoint-
ment. The usual period of such training is one academic year.
In Federal Republic of Germany, *Hockscule* at Speyer, in Sri
Lanka, Academy of Administrative Studies, in Philippines,
Government Advisory Board for Inservice Training, in Nepal,
Administrative Management Department, in Kenya, Institute of
Public Administration, in India, Training Division in the
Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms and
ministries are responsible in an overall manner for training. On
the job training is a very important aspect of the development
of senior administrators in Republic of Korea. Whatever litera-
ture is available in the field of training deals mostly with the
business community and is primarily concerned with the outward
looking problems of companies.[35] But serious efforts are being
made to overcome this difficulty by adopting new techniques
and encouraging publications.

Conduct and Discipline

Discipline usually suggests the harsher side of supervision
and is a contingency measure to be used when other appro-
aches to employee performance problems have not succeeded. It
also sets the tone, the climate and the ethos of the organisation.
In administering discipline and penalising employees, adminis-
tration has constantly to be aware of the dual objectives of
preserving the interests of the organisation as a whole and
protecting the rights of the individual. The rules and standards
of conduct are adopted and reduced to writing. Though the
classification, control and appeal rules enumerate the different

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[35]*United Nations: Handbook of Training in the Public Service*, New York,
1966, p. 112. R.C. Joshi, "Methodological Approaches in Public
Administration Training," *International Review of Administrative Sciences*,
1975, No. 1, pp. 1-15. "Training for Development in West Malaysia" a
Report by the Development Administration Unit and Staff Training Centre,
Government of Malaysia. Colin Leys, "Recruitment, Promotion and
Training, in G. Hyden, *et.al.*, (Ed.), *Development Administration: The Kenya
Experience*, Nairobi, 1970, p. 141.

penalties that may be imposed on a government servant, they
do not prescribe the maximum or minimum penalty for the
various types of offences. In many countries public service
commissions are consulted on all disciplinary matters affecting
persons serving in a civil capacity including memorials or
petitions relating to such matters, except on those cases which
have been specifically exempted by the rules and regulations
issued in this behalf.[36] In USA, under regulations prescribed
by the office of personnel management, an agency may take a
disciplinary action only for such cause as will promote the
efficiency of the service. In Great Britain, the personal acti-
vities of a civil servant are not subject to official sanction,
provided they do not conflict with the official duties, nor with
the provisions of the Official Secrets Act of 1911 and 1920 and
the Prevention of Corruption act, 1906. Ghana and Tanzania
have enacted new civil service Acts and Ghana lists in the Act
itself eight penalties that may be imposed in disciplinary pro-
ceedings but Tanzania does not list the punishments and the
Act requires the President to make regulations for the
conduct of disciplinary proceedings. In Federal Republic of
Germany the control of the legality of the administration and
the consequent link established between illegality and dis-
cipline has had a dominant influence. As a result, only a
small number of cases are brought before the administrative
courts each year. The French General Regulations of 1959 do
not attempt to detail the acts of civil servants which may be
punishable under the disciplinary code. They, however, specify
certain disabilities and certain positive duties. In Malaysia, the
Conduct and Discipline Regulations make no attempt to list
all permissible punishments. In Australia, punishable offences

[36]Gerald E. Caiden, *The Commonwealth Bureaucracy*, London, Mel-
bourne University, 1967, Part I. J.D.B. Miller, *Australian Government and
Politics*, Duckworth, 1965. C.D. Corpuz, *Bureaucracy in the Philippines*,
Manila, 1957. Turki, "Twenty Years of the Civil Service of Pakistan: A Re-
evaluation," *Asian Survey*, Vol. IX, 4, April 1969. John O. Kumar, "The
Socio-Political Setting" in G. Hyden, R.H. Jackson and J.J. Okumu,
Development Administration: The Kenyan Experience, Nairobi, Oxford

are listed in section 55 of the Public Service Act.[37] In Republic of Korea, Bangladesh, Kenya, India, Pakistan, Thailand, Philippines, Nepal, Japan, the civil service acts and codes lay down various responsibilities and conduct rules.[38] The Iranian Code provides for an administration court to which matters involving serious penalties may be referred, but the disciplinary machinery has been largely unworkable. In Canada, there is considerable variation in the procedures employed in the different departments in the matter of discipline. In the case of serious offences, the matter is referred to civil service commissions in Canada, Tanzania and Nigeria. Disciplinary procedures in Sri Lanka are extremely complicated, time consuming and difficult.

Employer-Employee Relations

Governments encourage all classes of employees to organise themselves in healthy associations for promoting their legitimate interests in concerning their work and welfare.[39] Civil servants in Japan are divided into three groups in connection with the right to organise: (*a*) the personnel engaged in public sector may organise their labour unions just like other employees of civil enterprise, (*b*) the personnel of police service and other essential services are prohibited, and (*c*) other employees

[37]Elaine V. Thompson, "The Report of the Committee of Inquiry into the Public Service of South Australia, 1975," *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, 35(3) September 1976, pp. 273-80. Gene S. Booker, "Behavioral Aspects of Disciplinary Action," *Personnel Journal*, Vol. 48, No. 7, July 1969, pp. 525-29. Irving Swerdlow (Ed.), *Public Administration Training for the Less Developed Countries*, Maxwell School, Syracuse, 1974, p. 140.

[38]*The Government Servants (Discipline and Appeal) Rules*, Bangladesh, 1976. John J. Deutsch, "The Public Service in a Changing Society," *Canadian Public Administration*, Spring 1968, pp. 1-8. Martin R. Dornbos, "Bureaucracy and Development: Where Are the Constraints?", *Sudan Journal of Administration and Development*, Vol. 9, 1974, pp. 7-16. Khalid B. Sayeed, *The Political System of Pakistan*, Boston, Houghton, 1967, pp. 62-63.

[39]Sidney Verba, Norman H. Nie and Jae-on-Kim, *Participation and Political Equality*, London, Cambridge University Press, 1978, Ch. II. L.D. Mankin, "Public Employee Organisation: the Quest for Legitimacy", *Public Personnel Management*, 6(5) Sept.-Oct. 1977, pp. 334-40. *Report of the Royal Commission on the Civil Service*, (1953-55), London, HMSO, 1955, p. 25.

are permitted to form their employee organisations in connection with the improvement of working conditions. In France, the civil servant has a right to belong to a trade union and has a right to strike. The trade unions are associated with management through technical committees, constituted in each administrative agency or service and through the Higher Council consisting of equal representatives of the administration and of staff trade unions, presided over by the prime minister or the minister in charge of the civil service and this set-up is intended to be the chief consultative machinery for the system.

In Canada, as a result of political instability, in 1965, the various civil service associations were able to press leaders of all major political parties into agreeing that 'if elected' they would consider collective bargaining for public servants. The election of Mr. Pearson's Liberals in 1965 led, then, to the crea·tion of a committee to advise the government on a system of collective bargaining for its employees. A general postal employees strike and revised legislation led to the passage of three statutes in 1967. The Public Services Staff Relations Act established a system of collective bargaining for most federal civil servants. The Financial Administration Act Amendments established the Treasury Board as management agency for collective bargaining purposes. In USA, there are two types of employees organisations: (*a*) Staff associations for government employer, which represent people in any department and any occupational group. (*b*) National unions, only some of whose members are in government service. Management has the positive obligation to consult employer's organisation on a wide range of issues, subject to law and the paramount requirements of the public service. The Federal Mediation and Conciliation Service provides services and assistance to agencies and executive representatives in the resolution of negotiation impasses. In United Kingdom, Whitley Council is the most glamorous administrative innovation made and it has deeply influenced the constitution of the Joint Consultative Machinery in India.[40]

[40]Robert E. Hampton, "Unionism and the Public Employees", *Civil Service Journal*, 14(3) January-March 1974, pp. 5-9. P.K. Kuruvilla, "Collective Bargaining in the Canadian Public Service", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, 18 (4), October 1974, pp. 279-96.

In Nigeria and Malaysia Whitleyism is practical but its success has been limited by some inadequacy in staff representation, despite a denial of recognition to bodies not representing a substantial proportion of the classes whose interests they defined. For better relations with the employees, there is a scheme for joint consultative machinery of compulsory arbitration for central government employees in India which provides for joint-councils at the national, departmental, and regional or office levels and covers most of the regular civil servants, but the members of Grade A and Grade B and police personnel have been excluded from its purview. In Ghana, Nigeria and Tanzania, the machinery for negotiation for the Industrial departments has worked better than the Whitley council system. This is primarily because the staff side is constituted by trade unions which are normally dynamic and aggressive. In Federal Republic of Germany, there exists the right of association together with the legal right of staff associations to participate in drawing up certain regulations. In Sri Lanka, there is no high level of trade unionism including a marked readiness to engage in strikes. Australian associations, unlike the British, are not restricted to public servants, and there are some who draw members from both the public and private sectors. In Ghana, membership in the government sponsored trade union organisation was made mandatory for all but the higher civil servants but they were denied the right to strike and the government was not bound by an agreement made with their unions. In Republic of Korea, only the industrial staff is authorised to form unions. In Philippines, Thailand and Pakistan officers and employees are allowed to organise or join associations or unions provided the latter are recognised.[41] In Kenya as in other

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[41]Frederic Meyers, "Pubilc Employee Unions the French Experience", *Industrial Relations*, February 1973. pp. 33-50. Adelman, *Practical Approaches to Development Planning—The Case of Korea*, Baltimore, John Hopkins, 1967. Graham Pyalt, Alan R. Roe and Associates, *Social Accounting for Development with Special Reference to Sri Lanka*, Cambridge, 1977, Ch. II. Paul G. Lewis, David C. Potter and Francis G. Castles, *The Practice of Comparative Politics*, Open University Press, 1978, Ch. VII. Marjorie O. Webb, *The Government Explains*, London, Allen & Unwin, 1965. H.B. Chenery and Syrquin, *Patterns of Development 1950-70*, London, O.U.P., p. 375.

African states, no sharp line has been drawn between industrial undertakings in government departments and others, and trade unions have embraced a wide section of the staff, mostly the union staff, regardless of whether they are industrial or not.

Principles of Pay Determination and Salary Structure

A realistic appraisal of the requirements of good administration must include appreciation of what the Priestley Commission had observed: "The health and vitality of service must be affected by its ability to reflect changes in the pattern of remuneration in the outside world." The fixation of pay scales is usually a matter for discussion between financial and establishment authorities.[42] Canadian pay system is basically job centred in the sense of paying for any job what it is deemed to be worth. In France, salaries are adjusted to the cost of living without distorting internal differences, which appears more flexible. To each post or class of posts is allotted an index number, this number recognises the hierarchic rating of the post and is in fact an expression of a form of post classification.[43] The salary of a post is then a prescribed basic sum multiplied by the index number. Adjustments to salary are made by adjusting the basic sum. Most pay scales have either four or five steps. In order to aid movement between occupational groups, the Canadians have developed a Special Assignment Pay Plan. In Australia, the main principles or policies in fixation of pay in the commonwealth services are: (a) a group-by-group approach; (b) reliance on comparisons with rates paid by other employers for comparable work as a first step to pay fixation; (c) the automatic maintenance of pre-existing pay relatives not to be acceptable

[42]Adrian Wood, *A Theory of Pay*, London, Cambridge University Press, 1978. Valerie Ellis, "Civil Service Pay-Policy and Principles", *Personnel Management*, April, pp. 28-30. Robert R. Fredlund, "The President's Panel on Federal Compensation," *Civil Service Journal* 16(3), pp. 1-5.

[43]Mills, Odoi Commission, *Commission on the Structure and Remuneration of the Public Services in Ghana* (No. 326), 1967, The Pratt Report for Kenya: *The Tanganyika Civil Service Salaries Commission*, (Chairman: A.L. Adu.) R.N. Haldipur, "Administrative Infrastructure and Organization, Administrative Coordination and Decision-Making," *Training Abstract*, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms, Cabinet Secretariat, New Delhi.

basis for pay fixation; (*d*) pay decisions affecting particular groups should have perspective effort; (*e*) guidance contained in decisions by the arbitral authorities to be followed; (*f*) applications to all staff in the service of national wage case decisions and acceptance that those take full account of all general economic factors. In India, the incremental salary scale is prescribed for all the services in the initial and the higher levels.[44] In Japan, the Pay Law (1950) empowers the national personnel authority to make rules and issue directions necessary for the administration and technical interpretation of this law. In Malaysia, the salary is determined on the basis of 'clean wage' and remuneration is based upon the value of the work done for the employer and does not vary according to the family responsibilities of the employees. In Tanzania and Korea government has a duty to pay a living wage, adequate for a man to maintain himself and his family in adequate housing, food and other necessities of life. In United Kingdom, the principle of fair comparison is accepted that no (non-industrial) grade in the civil service should be entirely unestablished, if its work is permanent. The Pratt Commission in Kenya recommended a similar policy. In Thailand, the pay system is based mainly on personnel qualifications and on the concept of equal treatment for equal work and salaries are linked to formal education and training. Salaries in Ghana are fixed for individual senior posts and all other posts, whether generalist, technical or professional are fitted into a group of incremental scales. In Federal Republic of Germany, sixteen scales of pay from A-1 to A-16 and eleven fixed rates from 13-1 to 13-11 cover all posts. As for the position of salaried employees and wage earners, it is governed by collective agreements reached between the employers and unions of employees and wage-earners, except in those cases where an individual works on contract. In Kenya, a 95-point single salary structure has been designed to cover all jobs in the 15 job groups; so there are 15 pay-scales

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[44]Government of India, *Report of the Third Pay Commission*, New Delhi. *Report of the Pay and Service Commission*, 1959-62, Karachi, Government of Pakistan Press, 1962. Louis J. Kroeger and Associates, "Wage and Position Classification in the Philippines", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, July, 1960, pp. 253-84.

in all. The pay structure is based on the principle of job analysis and evaluation. In Nigeria, there is a uniform set of 12 fixed pays and 92 scales of pay. In Philippines, the salary plan provides for 75 salary ranges from 1 to 75 (enough with 5 steps at 5 per cent interval). In Indonesia, the committee which looked into the basic Personnel Act of 1961 recommended that the government must meet minimal standards of living of the civil servants and must provide sufficient incentives to the managerial group in the service. In Sri Lanka, the pay pyramid is substantially flattened and dearness allowance is not a part of the salary structure. In Iran, the salary to be paid should be commensurate with the value of the services rendered. The *bareme* system is an effective way of adjusting salaries to living costs without the disturbances of periodic pay commissions, provided the base is adjusted to the cost of living and provided the same control is exercised over re-indexing as should be over upgrading of posts. In Nepal, the private sector, other than agriculture, is not a considerable employer.

Employee's Welfare and Conditions of Service

Every country provides its employees certain tangible benefits over and above the basic pay cheque to supply financial protection against such risks as illness, accident, unemployment, and loss of income due to retirement.[45] In Australia, the Superannuation Act of 1952 provides for the establishment of a superannuation fund for retirement benefits of the commonwealth employees. In Canada, there are no allowances to compensate for the higher cost of living either generally all over the country or in particular localities. Additions to salary are mainly two, namely, foreign service allowance and posts allowance, when posted in remote stations. In Tanzania, the conditions of service are quite attractive but the tendency is to raise the weekly hours of work for better utilisation of available

[45]C.R. Blitzer, *et. al. Economy-wide Models and Development Planning*, London, Oxford University Press for World Bank, 1975. Roger Gregoire, *National Administration and International Organisations*, Brussels, UNESCO and IIAS, 1954. Karl D. Jackson, "Bureaucatic Policy: A Theoretical Framework for the Analysis of Power and Communications in Indonesia" in Karl D. Jackson and Lucian W. Pye, *Political Power and Communications in Indonesia*, Beckelt, University of California Press, 1978, p. 14.

experience and talent. In Sri Lanka, the overtime bill of the civil servants amounted only to 6 to 8 million rupees out of a total cost of an order of 600 million. The Pereira Commission, however, considered this figure alarming and recommended steps to increase control of the allowance and decrease the rate at which it was calculated. In Malaysia, the government thinks it wrong to apply minimum living wage standard to the salaries of government servants as this would place them in a privileged position in comparison with the rest of the community. In United Kingdom, the pay and other conditions of service are decided through negotiations in the whitley council. In Kenya, the National Security Fund caters for all male employees in organisations with not less than 5 employees with the exception of the pensionable staff employed by the East African community, central government and local authorities. The central personnel authority is authorised to establish reasonable schedules of premium pay in Japan with respect to such monthly salary rates, consistent with peculiarities involved in such positions. In Ghana, since there [is a need to retain or attract the services of expatriate personnel, the conditions of service are widely influenced by the market value of local candidates of similar qualifications, experience and competence.[46] In Federal Republic of Germany, there is a connection of the civil service wage with the GNP rather than the cost of living index. In France, as a general rule, civil service pay is not negotiable with the staff nor is it determined by the wage structure in the private sector. In USA, there is provision of merit pay and cash rewards for superior accomplishment and quality performance. In India, in spite of three central pay commissions, the conditions of service are not so attractive as compared to the private sector. In Indonesia, it was found that in addition to the deteriorating conditions, there were also the more serious attitudinal problems facing the entire bureaucracy. In Philippines, the Government Service Insurance System, a government corporation, operates a system of life insurance

[46]Robert M. Price, *Society and Bureaucracy in Contemporary Ghana*, New York, University of California Press, 1975. K.A. Owusu-Ansah, "Restructuring the Central Bureaucracy in Ghana", *Greenhill Journal of Administration*, Vol. I, No. 3, Oct.-Dec. 1971.

and retirement benefits for government employees. In Nigeria, the number of allowances are only three in addition to the basic emoluments—children's, housing and motor car. In Republic of Korea, the Ministry of Cabinet Administration and the Central Personnel Agency look after the conditions of service and employee's welfare. In Thailand, government employees receive a basic pay plus certain allowances and area allowances. In most cases, however, an average civil servant receives only his basic salary.[47]

Research and Development

Many personnel and related problems are speculative and imponderable because of the dearth of facts and system analyses. Research is a combination of theorising, experimenting and discovering. A study group of the Britain Royal Institute of Public Administration in 1963 said, "Research is generally agreed to be an essential function of an Institute of Public Administration."[48] This may be a distinguishing feature between institutes and schools of public administration but normally there is no distinction between the two. The United Nations groups of experts operating under its auspices has long recognised the importance of research as the foundation of training in the public service.[49] The research function merges into consulta-

[47]R.G.S. Brown, *The Administration Process in Britain*, London, Methuen, 1970. J.A. Cross, *British Public Administration*, London, University Tutorial Press, 1970. Howard A. Scarrow, *Higher Public Service of the Commonwealth of Australia*, Duke, Commonwealth Studies Centre, 1957. D.J. Murrary (Ed.), *Studies in Nigerian Administration*, Hutchinson, 1978.

[48]*Report of a Conference of Directors*, 1963, London, RIPA, 1963, p. 48. Vernon Morgan, "Civil Service Pay; Role of the Pay Research Unit", *Personnel Management*, April, 1973, pp. 26-28. *Royal Commission on Australian Government and Administration*, 1974-76 (Chairman: H.C. Coombs.)

[49]Jean Meynaud, *Technocracy*, London, Faber and Faber, 1968, Ch. VI. *Standards and Techniques of Public Administration with Special Reference to Technical Assistance for Under-developed Countries*, New York, U.N., 1951, p. 40. *Training and Administration of Personnel in the Public Service*, New York, UN, 1956, pp. 83-96. K.A. Owusu-Ansah, "Administration Responsibility, and the Ghana Public Services", *Greenhill Journal of Administration*, Vol. IV, No. 2, July-Sept., 1974. *Report of the Committee on Recruitment*, New Delhi, UPSC, 1976.

tion or advisory services in Kenya and the Institute of Public Administration performs this role. In Canada, the Pay Research Bureau was set up under the Civil Service Commission in 1957 and started biennial cyclical reviews in 1961. A Pay Research Unit in Malaysia collects data relating to the salaries and conditions of service of employees in the private sector. In UK, the Civil Service Pay Research Unit had been set up in 1956 and the unit undertakes pay research surveys required by the National Whitley Council for fixation of salaries. In Sri Lanka, the establishment of the Academy of Administrative Studies helps in the field of research activities. In Nepal, research in personnel administration has been entrusted to the Department of Administrative Management. The Kothari Commission in India recommended that there should be a Research Unit, competently staffed for the work of the Union Public Service Commission and for the improvement of selection methods. There is also Policy Planning Division in the Department of Personnel. In Republic of Korea, there are the Central Official Training Institute and the Graduate School of Public Administration at Seoul which look after the research side. In Pakistan, an administrative reform cell has been established in the establishment division. In Australia, research side is being looked after by the Public Service Board. In United States, the Office of Personnel Management had been enjoined to: (*a*) establish and maintain research programmes, (*b*) evaluate, establish and maintain a programme for the collection and public dissemination of information relating to personnel management research and for encouraging and facilitating the exchange of information among interested persons and entities. It has also to conduct and evaluate demonstration projects. In Philippines, Thailand and Republic of Korea, the research divisions conduct researches and publish studies on personnel administration. They also provide consultative services to the government on request. In addition to applied research they bring out bibliographies, indices of periodicals, etc. In Ghana, India, Nigeria and Tanzania, research and investigations are best carried on in established institutions such as the Institute of Public Administration, Administrative Staff College and the Political

Science faculties of universities.[50]

The above analysis shows that in most of the countries the central personnel agency has a direct or indirect role to play in various matters relating to personnel administration. Administrative organisations and practices can be said to be successful only in the national setting in which they are found. Personnel policy must somehow fit into the national culture and take note of practical applications to the work situation prevailing in the country. Personnel administration is a phase of public administration in which all countries can work together on substantially equal terms. The more advanced countries have much to contribute from their longer experience and from new experimentation in the learning process, while newly independent and developing countries can utilise this contribution by suitably modifying their own systems within the constraints of inadequate resources. In the next chapter, the functions and organisation of central personnel agencies has been briefly presented not for the purpose of holding up a model for adoption without re-examination by other countries, but by way of illustration that even developing countries have a lot to offer to the development of art and science of personnel administration.

[50]Ranjit M. Withana, "Administration Training in Developing Countries: A Survey of Some Issues and Problem Areas," *Journal of Development Administration*, May, 1972, pp. 91-9. B.C. Koh, *Aspects of Administrative Development in South Korea*, Michigan, 1967. A.R. Hoyle, "Some Deficiencies in the Training of Senior Administrators for Developing Countries", *International Review of Administrative Sciences*, 1974, No. 4, pp. 329-34.

3

Public Personnel Agencies at Work

Central personnel agencies perform different functions in different countries and their location also shows wide variation. In some countries they are located within the executive branch whereas in others public service commissions, which are mainly responsible for recruiting higher civil services, enjoy constitutionally an independent status. Powers to appoint and take disciplinary actions are generally vested in the line agencies with the central personnel agency performing and assisting, recommending and inspecting or undertaking review function.[1] In some developing countries there is a definite move away from the regulatory aspects of personnel administration to positive measures for maximising personnel efficiency. A variety of approaches characterise the arrangement for training of the civil service and the quality, content and objectives of training vary in different countries and for different levels.[2] This chapter describes in *brief* the authority, nature of powers, and responsibilities of central personnel agencies for carrying out or controlling personnel activities in different countries. There are references also to what degree they are independent of, or dependent upon, the chief executive or the legislature. Wherever

[1]Michael Cohen, "The Personnel Policy Making Systems" in Robert T. Golembiewski and Michael Cohen (Ed.), *People in Public Service*, Ithaca, Peacock, 1970.

[2]United Nations, *Handbook of Civil Service: Laws and Practices*, New York, UN, 1966.

possible, the internal organisation and operating procedures have also been mentioned.

This study relates to a number of countries operating with different political systems and at different levels of economic development. Broadly, they can be classified as developed and developing, though the distinction is fast disappearing. When the term 'well-developed' countries is used, generally the reference is to most modern countries of Western Europe and others which have followed their model.[3] Generally, five common features have been identified in such countries. *First,* there is a high degree of task specialisation and roles are assigned according to the personal merit of the individuals rather than according to the family status or social class. More or less, the organisation of the government is patterned after the organisation of the private sector. *Second,* while making governmental decisions and policy pronouncements, political decisions and legal judgments are more relied upon than the traditional beliefs. *Third,* bureaucracy becomes more and more powerful with ever increasing functions of the government. *Fourth,* people's active participation is secured and their involvement in the decision-making process is encouraged. The degree of legitimacy and wide acceptance provide stability to the system.[4] *Fifth,* due to adherence to certain norms or conventions, those who wield authority in political or governmental hierarchy are widely viewed as legitimate holders of authority, according to prescribed, orderly procedures. Bureaucracy is considered to be professional—a type of specialisation being necessary for recruitment.[5] These characteristics should not give an impression that certain countries can be clubbed together but there are considerable differences in bureaucratic forms and procedures which reflect

[3]J.D. Montgomery and W.J. Siffin (Eds.), *Approaches to Development Politics, Administration and Change,* New York, McGraw, 1966, pp. 133-183.

[4]Michael D. Regan (Ed.), *The Administration of Public Policy,* Glenview Scott, 1965. R.N. Spann and G.R. Curnow (Eds.), *Public Policy and Administration : A Reader,* Sydney, Wiley, 1975, p. 100.

[5]Ralph Braibanti (Ed.), *Asian Bureaucratic Systems Emergent from the British Imperial Tradition,* New Princeton, Duke University Press, 1966. Wallace S. Sayre, "Bureaucracies: Some Contrasts in Systems", *Indian Journal of Public Administration.* Vol. X. No. 2. 1964.

peculiar historical experiences. A brief description of the central personnel agencies in some of the more developed countries is as follows.

DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Australia

The Public Service Board is an independent statutory agency composed of a chairman and two commissioners. The Board has been given multiple responsibilities and duties by the Public Services Act (1922). The major functions of the Board, having a great influence in the field of personnel and administrative coordination are: (*a*) Policy aspects like advising on allocations of new functions in departments and agencies; (*b*) Personnel controls; (*c*) Determination of conditions of service; (*d*) Assistance to departments like standardisation of procedure and improvement in training of officers. The Board's central office consists of five divisions which operate direct to the Board, although particular commissioners take a special interest in, and exercise major delegations in respect of certain areas. In addition, the Board has a Management Branch to provide internal management services for the Board's office. There are Regional Director's office in each state and territory and a representative in London. Although, in law and in practice, the permanent head and other departmental officers under him are responsible for dealing with matters relating to salaries, employee grievances, working conditions, etc., there are certain statutory limitations on their power. Pay rates and conditions of employment are determined by the Public Service Board.[6] Permanent staff can be appointed and/or dismissed, only with the approval of the Board. Regulations made by the Board, including those introducing new pay rates, are subject to approval by the Governor-General-in-Council.[7] The Government can veto regulations made by the Board but such a veto

[6] *Report of the Royal Commission on Australian Government Administration*, Canberra, AGPS, 1976, pp. 153-189. Hazlehurt and Nethercote (Eds.), *Reforming Australian Government—The Coombs Report and Beyond*, Canberra, RIPA Press, 1977, pp. 95-118. *Australian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. XXXV, No. 4, 1976.

[7] Roy Forward (Ed.), *Public Policy in Australia*, Melbourne, Cheshire 1974, p. 1. J.D.B. Miller and Brian Jinks, *Australian, Government and Politics*, London, Duchworth, 1971. *Australian Commonwealth Government Directory, 1979.*

wherever exercised by the government requires a report to Parliament. The Board's decisions on pay rates do not automatically provide funds required for affecting these rates. This is the prerogative of the Treasurer and is put into effect by the appropriations approved by the Parliament. Certain important conditions of service like annual leave and pensions fall outside the purview of the Public Service Board and are governed by legislative enactments. Even in its normal activities, the Board functions in coordination with the Treasurer and other departments.

Canada

In 1882, more competitive examinations for entry to the public service were established. As a result of pressures, the Laurier Government passed a Civil Service Act in 1908 which established an independent civil service commission, with life tenure, to conduct competitive examinations. Departments and other non-departmental parts of the administration have far from capitulated to control agencies.[8] Since 1967, the role of the public service commission as the personnel manager of the public service has been transferred to the Treasury Board, a Committee of the Cabinet. The commission continues to retain its statutory control as the sole staff agency committee for the preservation of the merit system. Most of the staffing functions have been delegated to the departments and agencies. However, it has retained the role of auditor of performance in these areas of delegated authority. On the whole, the commission has come to play a more positive role akin to that of the adviser and trainer rather than regulator, through its emphasis on its Bureau for staff training and development and its analysis of needs for training for advanced courses and for other employment facilities.[9] The Report of the Royal Commission on Finan-

[8]A.M. Williams and W.D.K. Kornagan (Ed.), *Public Administration in Canada: Selected Readings*, Toronto, Methuen, 1968. Kenneth Korenaghan, "Representative Bureaucracy: The Canadian Perspective", *Canadian Public Administration*, Vol. 21, No. 4, Winter 1978, pp. 489-512. B. Doren and P. Amconi (Eds.), *The Structure of Policy Making in Canada*, Toronto, MacMillan, 1971.

[9]J.E. Hodgetts, *The Public Service of Canada: A Physiology of Government 1867-1970*, Toronto, 1973. Thomas A. Hachin, *Government in Canada*, London, Weidenfeld, 1975.

cial Management and Accountability has in 1979 recommeded at virtually all the personnel functions currently performed by the public service commission be transferred to Treasury Board (the report recommended that this be redesignated Board of Management). This would expand the area of collective bargaining as well as more closely tie personnel administration to programme development and review and to the annual process of estimates preparation. It has further recommended that the Public Service Commission should become an agency of Parliament reporting directly to Parliament (as does the Auditor General) on the status of the merit system. In other words, it becomes a parliamentary watchdog of merit in the public service. The newly elected Clarke, Government has not yet formally responded to those recommendations. It is unlikely that the new government will move on this until a Special Investigative Committee on the merit system reports later in 1979. This committee was appointed a year ago to investigate and make recommendation in respect of the public service employment.

France

The French Civil Service is a fragmented one in which each Ministry tends to have one or more of its superior corps to which are entrusted the higher rungs of the field administration as well as the tasks of inspection, control and direction at the ministerial level.[10] *The Ecole Nationale d'Administration* or ENA recruits and trains entrants to '*Conseil D' Etat*', the '*Com des Comptes*', the '*Inspection des Finances*', *i.e.*, the corps of civil administrators, the diplomatic corps, and the corps of councillors of administrative tribunals. There are special schools for attaches of the central administration and works engineers. The Ministry of P&T has its own schools for recruitment and training of its inspectors and other personnel. If the number of candidates is larger, the recruitment is made in two steps—a pre-selection which will eliminate all those who are evidently

[10]F. Ridley, J. Blondel, *Public Administration in France*, London, 1964, Ch. II. Richard Symonds, *The British and Their Successors: A Study in the Development of the Government Services in the New States*, London, Faber and Faber. 1966. Part IV.

suitable, and a selection proper, through a competitive examination. In the French National School of Administration, half of the academic time is devoted to practical training. Besides requiring qualities of general intelligence, judgment and personality, the public office is a profession to be learnt, and from the very outset, presupposes sound knowledge, both general and specialised of the basic fields of administration. Promotion from one class to a higher class in the same grade is by selection. Promotion from one grade to a higher grade is also by selection. The selection lists are prepared by Promotion Boards.[11]
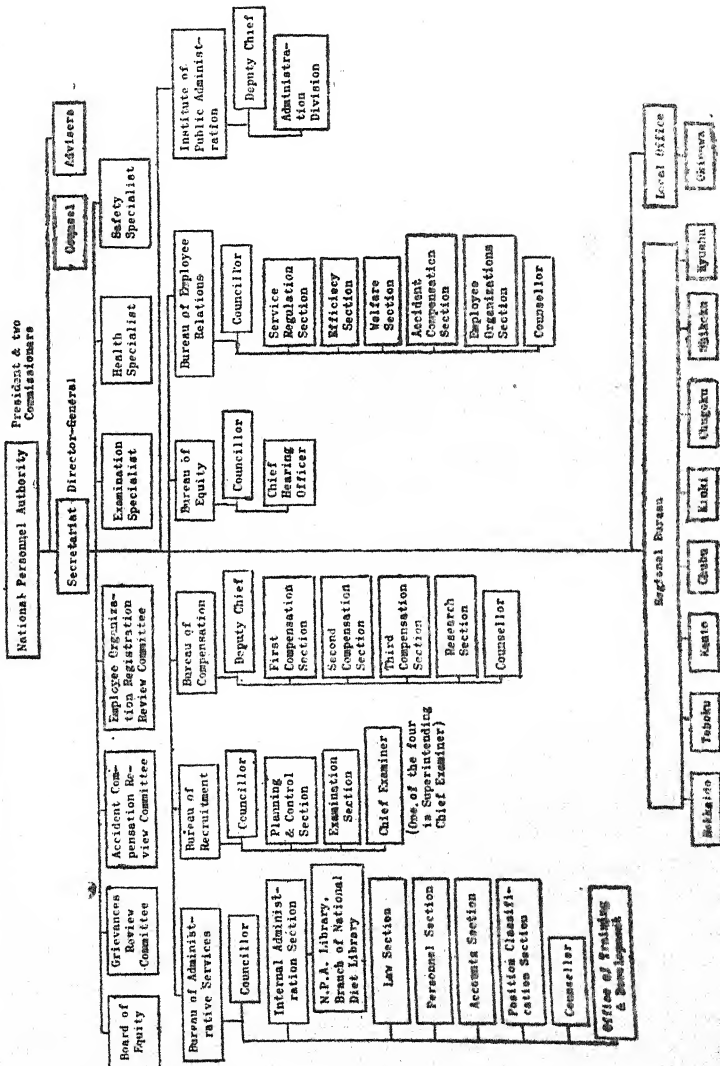
Japan

The National Personnel Authority (Jinji-In) which administers the National Public Service Law, was modelled after the Civil Service Commission of the USA and is largely independent of both the Diet and Cabinet (*see* Chart at p. 69). Article 29 of National Public Service enjoins on Authority to develop a position classification plan whereby all government positions are classified according to the kinds of duties and by the degree of complexity of duties and responsibilities involved. However, a position classification plan has not yet been materialised. At present, classification of duties prescribed by the law concerning compensation has been serving as a substitute for a position classification plan. The National Public Service Law provides that employment of personnel shall be made on the basis of the result of examinations, the record of work performance or the evaluation of demonstrated abilities.[12] The rules framed by the National Personnel Authority implement this basic principle. In principle, all initial appointments are made through competitive examination. Seventeen kinds of entrance examinations are held by the Authority and ministries and agencies appoint those who are on the entrance eligibility list determined by the Authority. The career of a civil servant in Japan lies in the ministry which he joins after qualifying through the entrance examination conducted by or approved or recogni-

[11]Ezra N. Suleiman, *Politics, Power and Bureaucracy in France*, Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1974.
[12]T.J. Pempel, *Policy Making in Contemporary Japan*, Ithaca, Cornell, 1977.

ORGANISATION CHART OF THE NATIONAL PERSONNEL AUTHORITY

National Personnel Authority

President & two Commissioners

Secretariat Director-General

Advisers

Counsel

Employee Organization Registration Review Committee

Accident Compensation Review Committee

Grievances Review Committee

Board of Equity

Examination Specialist

Health Specialist

Safety Specialist

Institute of Public Administration
- Deputy Chief
- Administration Division

Bureau of Employee Relations
- Councillor
- Service Regulation Section
- Efficiency Section
- Welfare Section
- Accident Compensation Section
- Employee Organizations Section
- Counsellor

Bureau of Equity
- Councillor
- Chief Hearing Officer

Bureau of Compensation
- Deputy Chief
- First Compensation Section
- Second Compensation Section
- Third Compensation Section
- Research Section
- Counsellor

Bureau of Recruitment
- Councillor
- Planning & Control Section
- Examination Section
- Chief Examiner (one of the four is Superintending Chief Examiner)

Bureau of Administrative Services
- Councillor
- Internal Administration Section
- N.P.A. Library, Branch of National Diet Library
- Law Section
- Personnel Section
- Accounts Section
- Position Classification Section
- Counsellor

Office of Training & Development

Regional Bureau
- Hokkaido
- Tohoku
- Kanto
- Chubu
- Kinki
- Chugoku
- Shikoku
- Kyushu

Local Office
- Okinawa

sed by the National Personnel Authority. Ordinarily all the promotions to the higher grade are made from amongst eligible employees within the ministry. Promotions are wholly made on the basis of demonstrated abilities for the various grades determined by the National Personnel Authority. However, all promotions to the higher posts, above the level of departmental section chief require, in principle, the review and approval of the National Personnel Authority. The law concerning compensation (of Employees in the Regular Services, No. 95 of 1950 and subsequent amendments) empowers the National Personnel Authority to make rules and issue directives necessary for the administration and technical interpretation of this law. The Authority is also empowered to study the rates of employee (pay and allowances) and to recommend to the Diet and the Cabinet simultaneously such revisions as it may deem appropriate. The Authority establishes rules and issues directives concerning standards for compensation of employees upon entrance into the service or upon change from one job grade to another and standards of step-increase, *i.e.*, within the salary increase.[13] In short, the Authority possesses an administrative function of enforcing various laws and regulations, a quasi-legislative function of enacting, revising or abolishing rules of the Authority concerning working conditions, etc., of employees and a quasi-judicial function of conducting necessary investigations and making decisions at a time when an employee files an appeal on an advance action or makes a request for improvement in working conditions. The Authority is a kind of administrative committee composed of three commissioners who are appointed by the cabinet with the consent of both Houses of the Diet, and one of the commissioner is designated and appointed as President to represent the Authority. No two persons among the three commissioners are members of the same political party or graduates of the same department of the same university, and the status of a commissioner, like that of a judge of the law court, is firmly guaranteed by the law.

[13]T.J. Pempel, *op. cit.* Marshall E. Dimoch, *The Japanese Technocracy: Management and Government in Japan*, Tokyo, Walker, 1968, Ch. IX. Theodore McNally, *Contemporary Government of Japan*, Boston, Houghton, 1963.

Great Britain

The management of the civil service vested with the Treasury till 1968 but the Fulton Committee recommendations changed the situation which led to the creation of a separate Civil Service Department(1968)which is now the chief personnel agency.[14] The new class of the Civil Service Department was formed from the Pay and Management Divisions of the Treasury, together with the Civil Service Commission. The Department is divided into four main areas—management of work, recruitment pay and pensions, and personnel management, including training with which the Civil Service College is closely associated. In addition, there is a Central Group under the Establishment Officer providing the usual common services. The aims of the department have been defined as: (1) To ensure that civil service organisation and staffing are such as are necessary to carry out the tasks of government, as these may be from time to time determined by or on behalf of ministers and Parliament. (2) To do all it can, by directives or advice and guidance to departments, to ensure that (subject to 1), the operation of government is carried out with maximum effectiveness and efficiency in the use of staff and other resources. (3) To ensure, as far as possible, centrally and with departments as appropriate, that all aspects of staff management in the civil service (including recruitment methods, training, complementing and grading, pay and pensions): (*a*) meet the present and future working needs of the service, thereby facilitating 1 and 2; (*b*) secure the benefit for the work of the service that can be obtained from a management which is seen to be considerate, humane and equitable in its approach and which gives reasonable scope to the individual capabilities and aspirations of members of the service; (*c*) are, where necessary, compatible with other parts of the public service and with the needs of public policy; (*d*) stand comparison with good outside practice in order to maintain reputation as an employer; (4) to stimulate and promote or undertake research and studies into problems of government and civil

[14]*The White Paper on the Reorganisation of Central Government*, London, HMSO, 1970, p. 13. R.A.W. Rhodes (Ed.), *Training in the Civil Service*, London, 1977. G.W. Jones, *Responsibility and Government*, London, L.S.E. 1977, pp. 20-28.

service organisation and management so that schemes may be introduced and proposals put to ministers, to help achieve aims 1, 2 and 3. (5) To maintain the probity of the system of recruitment selection. (6) To maintain the standing of the civil service at home and abroad in the interests of recruitment, staff morale, orderly conduct of public business, and the reputation of the British system of government.

The department advises the Prime Minister on the machinery of government, *i.e.*, the allocation of functions and responsibilities between ministers and government departments. It is responsible for the pay, pensions and other conditions of service of civil servants and undertakes negotiations with staff associations and trade unions within any general ministerial guidelines. The CSD has central control of the total number, expenditure, and grading of civil servants (although many detailed aspects of these functions, within approved ceilings, are delegated to departments). In consultation with departments, it determines recruitment needs and is responsible for overall recruitment policy. The Civil Service Commission is responsible for the recruitment and selection of staff for permanent appointment in the Home Civil Service and the Diplomatic Service. Management of staff is primarily the responsibility of the department concerned, but the CSD participates in the management of certain groups of specialist staff, coordinates transfers between departments and in and out of the civil service, issues advice and guidance, and is responsible for ensuring reasonable uniformity of standards, taking the lead with departments in drawing up agreed programmes. It coordinates and encourages use of management service techniques in the civil service and is responsible for providing help with specialised techniques and with inter-departmental issues. The Central Computer Agency provides advice on the best use of computers and computer staff. The CSD provides a service in the following areas: (*a*) Administration of the civil service pensions schemes, except where delegated to departments. (*b*) The Civil Service College runs training programmes, for senior staff and for inter-departmental courses, particularly those for administration trainees. The CSD also offers advice and guidance on departmental training programmes. (*c*) The Medical Advisory Service provides medical advice, *e.g.*, in relation to recruitment or

where a civil servant has to be retired early on grounds of ill-health. (*d*) The Civil Service Catering organisation provides catering services and supervises standards.[15]

United States of America

The Office of Personnel Management is an independent establishment in the Executive Branch, headed by a single Director appointed by the President.[16] This office has taken over most of the functions of the former Civil Service Commission except those involving appeals and policing the merit system. This office is supposed to aid the President in preparing such civil service rules as the President prescribes and otherwise advise the President on actions which may be taken to promote an efficient civil service and a systematic application of the merit system principles, including recommending policies relating to the selection, transfer, performance, pay, conditions of service, tenure, and protection of employees. It has also been made responsible for conducting, or otherwise providing for the conduct of, studies and research into methods of assuring improvements in personnel management. It still develops all the policies and programmes but delegates somewhat more operating responsibilities to the various line departments. A Merit Systems Protection Board has been established to take over the appellate function and to investigate any charges that the merit system is being violated anywhere in the government bureaucracy. A Federal Labour Relations Authority has also been established to oversee all operations relating to bargaining units, elections, and the like for representation and negotiation between management of agencies and unions of employees. This office has been vested with an official seal, which is judicially

[15]*Report of the Committee on the Civil Service*, Fulton Committee, London, HMSO, 1966-1968, Vol. I, S.R. Maheshwari, *The Civil Service in Great Britain*, Delhi, Concept, 1976, Ch. IV. Maltei Dogan (Ed.), *The Mandarins of Western Europe: The Political Role of Top Civil Servants*, New York, Sage, 1975, Ch. II. Civil Service Reforms Act, 1978, Title II, Sections 201 and 202.

[16]Tyrus G. Fami (Ed.), *Federal Reorganisation: The Executive Branch*, New York, Bowker, 1977. R.B. Jain, "The United States Civil Service Commission: Its Place in the Machinery of Government," *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. XVII, 1971, pp. 86-116. Civil Service Reforms Act, 1978.

noticed and the principal office is located in the District of
Columbia, with field offices in other appropriate locations.[17]

Federal Republic of Germany

Corresponding to the federal political set-up, there is a
central service (Bundesdienst) and a separate state service
(Landesdienst) for each of the eleven federal states (Lander).
Most of the salient features of these separate services are laid
down by laws with only marginal differences between states.
The services distinguish between three different categories of
personnel: The civil servants or 'Beamte', the salaried
employees or 'Angestellte' and the wage earners or 'Arbeiter'.
Whereas—the other two categories are employed by contract
with rules governing permanent status after 15 years of
uninterrupted employment in one and the same position. Apart
from the national and local administration, the public
service also comprises the personnel of the Federal Railways,
the Federal Postal System, the Federal Bank, the Federal
Labour Office and the Social Insurance System. Since insti-
tutions of learning such as schools and universities come
under the Ministries of Education of the Lander, teachers and
university professors as well as other university staff are mem-
bers of the public service of their respective state. The recruit-
ment of general administrators is through a process which
combines examination as well as training. There is no single
central personnel agency with the result that the whole process
of recruitment and training is highly dispersed.[18] Each of the
major three tiers of government recruits its own personnel, and
within them the separate units and agencies are largely responsi-
ble for meeting their personnel needs independently. Each
local authority and each Lander recruit its own personnel, and
in the federal government there is no such thing as a public ser-
vice commission, responsible for securing staff for the whole
federal administration. The departments are autonomous in the
appointment of staff, though technically it is the concerned

minister who confirms entry into the permanent federal or state civil service. Most of the subordinate agencies coming under the supervision of federal departments enjoy similar degree of independence in the selection of personnel.[19]

LESS-DEVELOPED COUNTRIES

Due to the presence of a number of problems, more differences in the administrative system are observed among the less-developed countries than among the relatively more developed ones.[20] They share historical experiences with one another due to colonial rule, but in contrast reflect a global range of political cultures. Several traits of administraive forms and procedures in less developed countries reflect the attributes of their environment.[21] First, among political elites, there is a widely shared commitment to 'development'. The objectives and goals of planned development differ but there are some common goals and concerns.[22] Much of bureaucratic activity is channelled towards the realisation of goals other than the achievement of programme objectives. *Second*, there is a high reliance on the public sector for leadership. Due to the improper intake of the right type of political leadership, there is a heavy reliance on bureaucracy and a high incidence of frustrated goals and civil unrest. *Third*, at times there is political instability and in many cases there is internal strife among the native leaders. *Fourth*, there is a gap between the modern and the traditional elites with the result that there are several conflicts of interests and changing loyalties.[23] *Fifth*, there is an imbalance in the development of

[19]Renate Mayntz and F.W. Scharpf, *Policy Making in the German Federal Bureaucracy*, Amsterdam, Eleseviee, 1975.

[20]Gabriel Almond and James Coleman (Ed.), *The Politics of the Developing Areas*, New Jersey, Princeton, 1960.

[21]Lucian Pye and Sydney Verba (Ed.), *Political Culture and Political Development*, New Jersey, Princeton, 1965.

[22]Wassily Leontief, *et. al.*, *The Future of the World Economy: A United Nations Study*, New York, UN, 1977, pp. 10-11.

[23]Angelos Angelopoulos, *The Third World and the Rich Countries: Prospects for the Year 2000*, New York, 1972, pp. 7-8. Alan B. Mountjoy (Ed.), *The Third World: Problems and Perspectives*, New York, Macmillan, 1978, p. 17. Leonard Binder, James S. Coleman *et. al.*, *Crises and Sequences in Political Development*, New York, Princeton, 1971. G.A. Almond and G. Bingham, *Comparative Politics: A Developmental Approach*, Boston, 1966.

various political features. The forms of government are closely
modelled on the former mother country. The bureaucracies are
deficient in skills necessary for development programmes.
Sixth, there is also a widespread discrepancy between
form and reality due to a combination of insufficient adminis-
trative resources and excessive aspirations. *Lastly*, their econo-
mies show a high proportion of subsistence agriculture with a
very limited application of technology. Families tend to be
large with high proportion of young people in their population,
between 40 and 50 per cent. Most of the population is disease-
ridden and under-nourished with high illiteracy rates. The
central personnel agencies of some of the developing coun-
tries are briefly described below.

People's Republic of Bangladesh

Two key agencies in the field of personnel administration
are the Establishment Division and the Public Service Commis-
sion. The control and management of personnel in various
ministries is primarily the internal matter of the particular
ministry but for laying down qualification standards, age limits,
pay scales, consultation with the Establishment Division is
obligatory. It is this division which initiates and processes any
general legislation relating to the terms and conditions of ser-
vice, frames rules regarding the personnel agencies and training
programmes. Its main functions are: (*a*) regulation of all
service matters; recruitment to, and administration of, adminis-
trative service; (*b*) coordination of policy of all ministries with
respect to the services under their control; (*c*) administrative
matters relating to the Public Service Commission; conditions
of service including status, superannuation, re-employment, etc.,
other than those falling within the purview of the Ministry of
Finance; (*d*) establishment matters relating to the officers and
staff attached to the President, the Vice-President, the Prime
Minister and other ministries; (*e*) personnel matters such as
posting, transfers, promotion etc. of officers connected with
general administration in the districts; (*f*) general policy re-
garding age limits, medical standards, educational qualification
and recognition of non-technical degrees, (*g*) general policy
matters regarding classification of posts, services and grant of

gazetted status in relation to services; (*h*) administrative research. There is a full-fledged Secretary, one Additional Secretary, seven Joint Secretaries, seventeen Deputy Secretaries and over fifty section officers, organisation and management services officers, Research officers and more than two hundred non-gazetted supporting staff. The Public Service Commission is a constitutional body, directly responsible to the President. The chairman and other members (at present 8 of them) are appointed by the President and the functions of the commission are: (*a*) to conduct competitive examinations for the selection of suitable persons for appointment to the service of the Republic, (*b*) to advise the President on matters which are sent for reference, and (*c*) such other functions as prescribed by law. There is close cooperation with the Establishment Division. Other ministries correspond with the commission through the Establishment Division except in minor matters where they have been allowed to correspond direct.[24]

Ghana

Like other new states in Africa, the country is still operating basically with inherited colonial, administrative institutions. The British civil service model continues to formally characterise public administration in Ghana, referred to by Price as an exceptional instance of 'institutional emulation.'[25] The civil service commission of a different type, not mentioned in the constitution but created and included in a separate Civil Service Law, is performing some select functions of recruitment. Subject to the constitution and as provided by law, the appointment, promotion, transfer, termination and discipline is vested in the President. The civil service is regulated by law and by legislative regulations made by the President after consultation

[24]K.M. Das, "Concept of Development Administration with short reference to Bangladesh," *Administrative Science Review*, Vol. IX, March, 1979. The Constitution of the People's Republic of Bangladesh as modified upto 28 February 1979, Dacca. Ahmed Ali, *Role of Higher Civil Services*, Dacca, 1968.
[25]Robert M. Price, *Society and Bureaucracy in Contemporary Ghana*, Berkeley, University of California Press, 1975, p. 150. Douglas Warner, *Ghana and the New Africa*, London, F. Muller, 1960. A.H.M. Kirk-Greene, "The New African Administrator", *Journal of Modern African Studies*, Vol. X, 1972, p. 94.

with the commission. The President usually consults both the commission and the minister in charge in respect of appointments, whether initial or on promotion to a class of management posts in a ministry. As regards the middle management group, the powers of appointment and control have been delegated to the commission. A new school for civil servants was set up, partly to instil new attitudes, but also in recognition of the mounting need for managerial personnel. Civil Service Act treats promotion to a post merely as one of the several ways of recruitng employees, another being initial appointment.[26]

India

A major step towards evolving a more rational and forward-looking personnel policy was taken by the Administrative Reforms Commission when it recommended the setting up of a Department of Personnel with the broad functions and responsibilities as: (a) formulation of personnel policies on all matters common to the Central and All-India Services, and inspection and review of their implementation; (b) manpower, training and career development; (c) research in personnel administration; (d) discipline and welfare of staff and machinery for redressal of their grievances, etc. In pursuance of this recommendation, the Department of Personnel was set up in August 1970 as a separate department under the Cabinet Secretariat. The department now forms part of the Ministry of Home Affairs.[27] It was envisaged that in its method of work this department would be research-oriented. Appropriate institutional support is a *sine qua non* for conception, initiation, implementation and sustenance of a forward looking and futuristic policy to cope with expanding frontiers of public administration. The depart-

[26]E. Phillip Morgan (Ed.), *The Administration of Change in Africa,* New York, Dunellen, 1974, pp. 111-116.

[27]*Reports of the Administrative Reforms Commission,* 1966. Specially *Report on the Machinery of the Government of India and its Procedures of Work,* April 1968. B.S. Narula, "Administrative Reforms Commission: Perspectives and Findings," *Indian Journal of Public Administration,* Vol. XVII, 1972, pp. 634-60. S.R. Maheshwari, *The Administrative Reforms Commission,* Agra, Lakshmi Narain Agarwal, 1972. *Public Personnel Administration—A Perspective.* A Monograph, published by Policy and Planning Wing of the Department of Personnel, 1972.

ment has *six* divisions, namely, Policy and Planning Division, All India Services Division, Training Division, Establishment Division, Vigilance Division, and Establishment Officer's Division. Administrative Reforms Commission also recommended in one of its reports the setting up of an Advisory Council on Personnel Administration which should consist of officials and non-official experts in different aspects of personnel management drawn from all over the country. In terms of these recommendations, the Government of India set up an Advisory Council in 1973 consisting of 14 members, with the Minister of State in the Department of Personnel as its Chairman and the Personnel Secretary as vice-chairman. The functions of the Council were: (*a*) to advise government on broad policy matters in personnel administration specially to act as a feeder line of new ideas and thinking in this field, (*b*) to consider and recommend broad lines of policy in the field of personnel administration, and (*c*) to advise on matters in the field specially placed before the Council for consideration. The Council was later abolished[28].

Indonesia

The government has created in 1966 a Personnel Reform Commission charged with the responsibility, among others, of looking into possible increase in the real income of the civil servants and for guiding ways to improve the utilisation of existing manpower. This commission has helped in the introduction of a new basic personnel act, government regulation on new salary of the civil servants, formulation of a correct manpower planning system and the introduction of examinations for promotion, prescription of a system not only of enforcing discipline but also recognising outstanding performance providing the necessary incentives to establish a stable civil service. Better coordination on public personnel development programme has been brought out by making it compulsory

[28]*Report of Administrative Reforms Commission on Personnel Administration*, New Delhi, 1969. Niru Hazarika, *Public Service Commission: A Study*, Leela Devi Publications, Delhi, 1979. C.N. Bhalerao, *The Public Service Commissions of India*, New Delhi, 1967. M.A. Muttalib, *Union Public Service Commission*, New Delhi, IIPA, 1967.

for all government agencies to consult the National Institute of Administration on all personnel development matters as teaching materials, contents of subject taught, qualifications of the instructors and duration of courses.[29] The President has made it mandatory for all government agencies to have an O & M unit with the Institute as the central coordinating body. The Civil Service Commission is responsible for recruitment and discipline. The ultimate responsibility of bringing about coordination is of the President who is the top administrator assisted by the ministers who act both as specialised staff to the President and as the top administrators in their own departments.[30]

Iran

No central personal agency existed till 1959 and the one created then was not operationally effective. The High Council on Government Administration is charged with making a comprehensive examination of the administrative structure and of the civil service law and personnel procedures with the intention of reorganising the system on scientific lines. This organ is a branch of the Planning Organization, not directly of the executive branch of the government. The High Council is attached to the Prime Minister's office and consists of a Presiding Board and a secretariat headed by a Director-General. The Presiding Board consists of five full-time members selected from active or retired civil or judicial officers of high standing, appointed for three years by the sovereign on a recommendation of the Prime Minister approved by the Council of Ministers. The duties of the Council include the issue of directives required to put into effect the laws and regulations, and approval of directives proposed by the Director-General, the review of complaints of employees, the control of retirement benefits, service matters, conditions of service, etc. Directives issued by the High Council in its exercise of power of supervision of employment laws and regulations, procedural arrangements and retirement and

[29]Jeans S. Mintz, *Indonesia: A Profile*, New York, D. Van, 1961, Ch. VIII.

[30]Sondange P. Siagian,"Improving Indonesia's Administrative Infrastructure: A Case Study" in Hahn-Been Lee and A.C. Samonte, *Administrative Reforms in Asia*, Manila, EROPA, 1970, Ch. V.

pensions are binding on every ministry. The central agencies are involved in experimenting with decentralisation of responsibility for decision-making to the regional and provincial centres. Each ministry has a Director-General of Training to plan, organise and direct specific training programmes. Each ministry has one or more training institutions offering pre-service training. The universities also offer in-service training programmes for post-graduate and under-graduate students.

Kenya

The organisations primarily concerned with the personnel management functions for the civil service are: The Directorate of Personnel (in the office of the President), the Public Service Commission, the Judicial Service Commission, the respective ministries and departments, and the Provincial Personnel Branches. The directorate forms a part of the office of the President and is divided into four branches: Personnel Administration, Management Consultancy Service, Manpower Development and Finance and Establishment.[31] The commission is an independent body deriving its authority from the constitution and is not subject to any other authority in the performance of its functions. Subject to the Constitution, the Commission is vested with the power to make appointments to the public service (including the power to confirm appointments), the power to exercise disciplinary control over members of the civil service and the power to remove such persons from office. With the approval of the President, the commission may delegate any of its powers to any one of its members or to any officer in the public service. The Judicial Service Commission has similar responsibilities for the officers of the judiciary as has the Public Service Commission for the civil service. Most of the major ministries and offices have their personnel officer. These officers are responsible for the routine establishment work of their ministries. They may take such action in personnel matters as

[31]A.L. Adu, *The Civil Service in New African States*, London, George Allen, 1966, p. 59. Gorem Hyden (Ed.), *Development Administration: The Kenyan Experience*, Nairobi, Oxford, 1970. C. Certzel, "The Provincial Administration in Kenya", and "The Provincial Administration and Development in Kenya, 1965-68," *Journal of Commonwealth Political Studies*, Vol. 4, No. 3, November, 1966

delegated to them or may propose action to the Directorate of Personnel or Public Service Commission, depending on the nature of the case.[32] In addition to performing establishment work for the provincial administration, these also act as central personnel offices for those field offices of ministries and departments in the provinces which do not have their own staff.
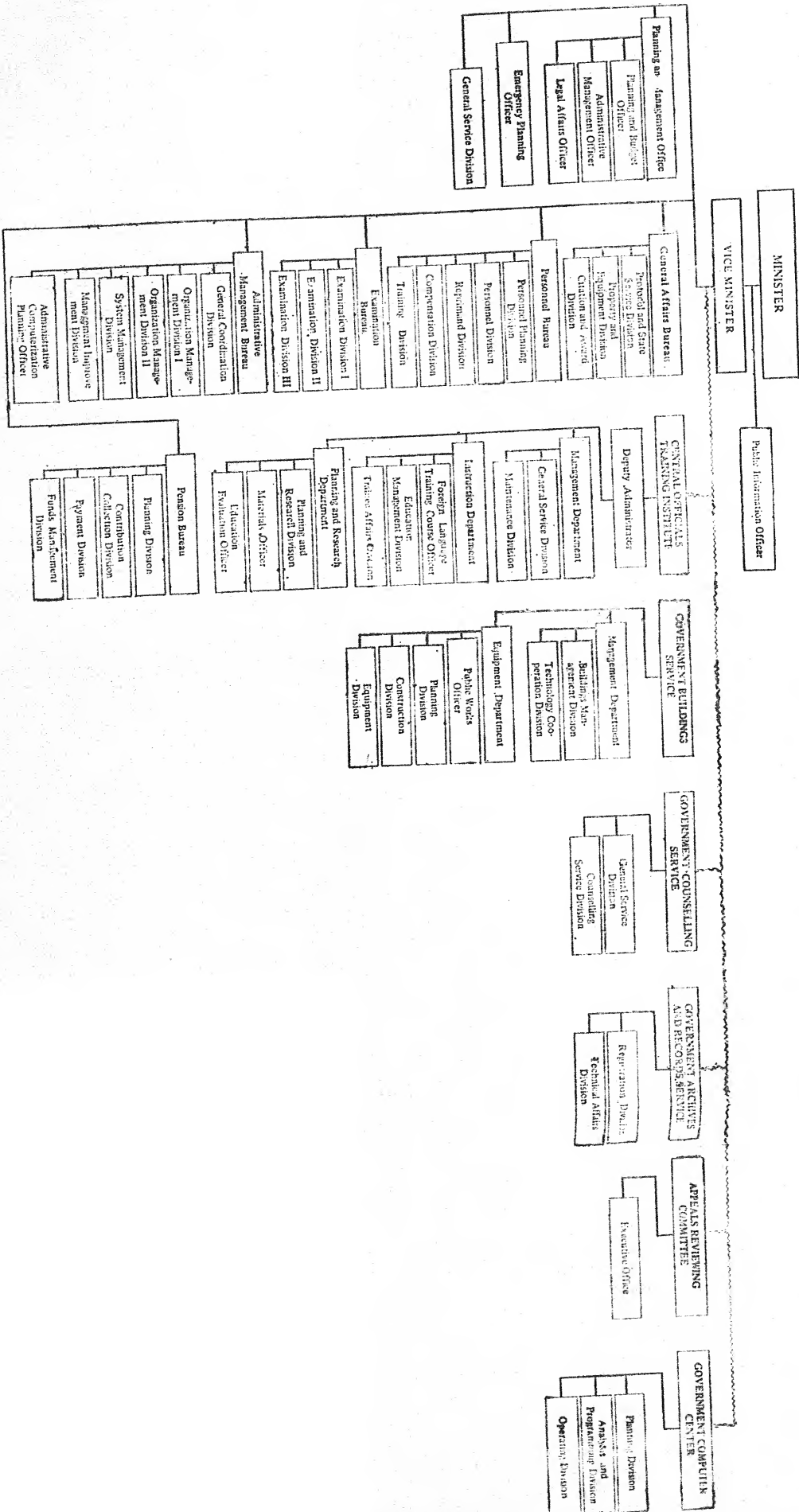
Republic of Korea

The Ministry of Government Administration acts as the central personnel agency and is not independent of the chief executive. It is a staff organ of the chief executive dealing with government for wide personnel matters. It consists of one office and five bureaus and under the Ministry there are five agencies. Among them three bureaus and two agencies are directly concerned with personnel management: 'Personnel Bureau, "Examination Bureau," 'Pension Bureau', 'Central Officials Training Institute' and 'Appeals Reviewing Committee'. Article 24 of the Government Organization Law reads as, "The Ministry of Government Administration shall be established under the Prime Minister for the purpose of taking charge of the affairs of the bills arrangement and general service for the State Council, promulgation of laws, ordinances and treaties, personnel administration of public officials, organisation and fixed number of personnel of administrative organs (administrative management), improvement of administrative office work, management of awards and decorations, pension administration for public officials, planning and system management for public officials education and training, and government buildings service."[33] It has been further laid down that as for the administrative affairs of the state which do not come under any other central administrative organ's jurisdiction, the Ministry of

[32]H.J. Nyam, *The Civil Service: Service Training, Induction Administrative Change and Attitudes*, Kenya Institute of Administration, 1973. J.B. Ojwang, "Kenya and the Concept of Civil Service Political Neutrality", *Indian Journal of Public Administration*, April-June, 1978, p. 430.

[33]The Central Personnel Agency of the Korean Government became the Ministry of Government Administration when Government Organisation Law was amended in 1963. Hahn-Been Lee, "Three Serial Reforms: A Korean Experience" in Hahn-Been Lee and Abelardo C. Samonte, *op. cit.* Ch. IV and Ch. VI.

MINISTRY OF GOVERNMENT ADMINISTRATION

MINISTER

- Public Information Officer
- VICE MINISTER

Planning and Management Office
- Planning and Budget Officer
- Administrative Management Officer
- Legal Affairs Officer
- Emergency Planning Officer
- General Service Division

General Affairs Bureau
- Protocol and State Service Division
- Property and Equipment Division
- Custom and Award Division
- Personnel Bureau
  - Personnel Planning Division
  - Personnel Division
  - Reprimand Division
  - Compensation Division
  - Training Division
  - Examination Bureau
    - Examination Division I
    - Examination Division II
    - Examination Division III
- Administrative Management Bureau
  - General Coordination Division
  - Management Improvement Division
  - System Management Division
  - Organization Management Division I
  - Organization Management Division II
  - Administrative Computerization Planning Officer

CENTRAL OFFICIALS TRAINING INSTITUTE
- Deputy Administrator
- Management Department
  - General Service Division
  - Maintenance Division
- Instruction Department
  - Education Management Division
  - Trainee Affairs Division
  - Foreign Language Training Course Officer
- Planning and Research Department
  - Materials Officer
  - Education Evaluation Officer

Pension Bureau
- Planning Division
- Contribution Collection Division
- Payment Division
- Funds Management Division

GOVERNMENT BUILDINGS SERVICE
- Management Department
  - Technology Cooperation Division
  - Buildings Management Division
- Equipment Department
  - Public Works Officer
  - Planning Division
  - Construction Division
  - Equipment Division

GOVERNMENT COUNSELLING SERVICE
- General Service Division
- Counselling Service Division

GOVERNMENT ARCHIVES AND RECORDS SERVICE
- Reproduction Division
- Technical Affairs Division

APPEALS REVIEWING COMMITTEE
- Executive Office

GOVERNMENT COMPUTER CENTER
- Planning Division
- Analysis and Programming Division
- Operating Division

Government Administration shall take charge of them. It is authorised to undertake tasks relating to: (*a*) development of personnel policies, (*b*) recommendation and administration of presidential appointments, establishment of the manpower planning of the government, (*c*) control and inspection of personnel affairs in government agencies, (*d*) management and training systems, overseas training, government fellowships, and operation of major inter-agency training and selected training programmes through non-government facilities, (*e*) administration of disciplinary actions of public officials of grade 3 or higher, (*f*) improvement of compensation system and establishment of salary schedules for government employees, (*g*) establishment of a general recruitment plan and setting and administering major examinations, (*h*) management and administration of a pension and fringe benefits system.

The Appeals Reviewing Committee was organised under the Minister in compliance with the National Service Law which was revised for the purpose of guaranteeing the status of employees, thus protecting them from unwarranted disciplinary action. The Central Officials Training Institute was also established under the Minister in compliance with the Official's Training Law, to conduct the training of public officials of grade 3 or higher including new entrants.[34]

Malaysia

There are four commissions with functions similar to the public service commission, police, railways, education and judicial and legal service. The agency responsible for performance of personnel function is the Public Service Commission under the Prime Minister's department. It is responsible for all establishment and service matters, which have financial implications. Together with the Treasury, which is responsible for financial control and the Public Service Commission, which is responsible for recruitment and the Administrative Modernisation and Manpower Planning. Unit of the Prime Minister's

[34]Hahn-Been Lee, *Korea, Time Change and Administration*, Honolulu, East-West Center, 1968, p. 90. R.S. Milne, "Mechanistic and Organic Models of Public Administration in Developing Countries", *Administrative Science Quarterly* Vol. XV, 1979, p. 57-67.

Department, which is responsible for research, the Public Service
Department controls the size and well being of the entire civil
service.[35] The main functions of the Public Service Department
are: (a) to requisite all matters pertaining to service and career
development of officers in the common user administrative,
executive and clerical services; (b) to control establishment
matters including determining type, grade and number of posts
required in the public service; and to exercise control over
terms and conditions of the various schemes of service; (c) to
meet the needs for trained personnel in the public service by
granting scholarship and training courses in Malaysia and over-
seas; (d) to administer the various pensions legislations govern-
ing the awards of pensions and other death and retirement
benefits; (e) to initiate action for promotion exercises in the
common user service and to provide advice and guidance in the
processing of all disciplinary cases under the General Orders as
enshrined in the Public Service Disciplinary Board Regulations,
1967 and the Public Service Board Regulations, 1967, con-
sequent upon the transfer of powers of promotion and
discipline from the Public Service Commission to the Heads of
Department.[36]

Nepal

Public Service Commission which is a constitutional body
and the Administrative Management Deparment—an admini-
strative agency are the central personnel agencies in Nepal. Part
XIII C Articles 77 and 78 of the Constitution deals with the
composition, functions and role of the Public Service Commis-
sions.[37] The commission is supposed to advise the government

[35]*Siffin Commission Report*, July 1967. R.S. Milne, "Bureaucracy and
Bureaucratic Reform in Malaysia", EROPA Review, Vol. IX, No. 1, June,
1963. M.J. Esman, *Administration and Development in Malaysia*, Ithaca,
Cornell, 1972.

[36]Megat M. Mordin, *Public Bureaucracy as Change Agent in a Plural
Society: A Case Study of the Malaysian Civil Service as Agent of Change*,
MPA thesis, Pittsburg, 1972. R.O. Tilman, *Bureaucratic Transition in
Malaya*, Durham, 1964.

[37]Constitution of Nepal 2019 V.S. (1962 A.D.) Merril R. Goodall,
"Administrative Change in Nepal" in Ralph Braibanti (Ed.), *Asian Bureau-
cratic Systems*, p. 609. S.S. Hsueh (Ed.), *Public Administration in South and
~~~~L East Asia*. Brussels, IIAS, 1962, p. 103. *Nepalese Journal of Public*

ORGANISATION CHART OF ADMINISTRATIVE MANAGEMENT DEPARTMENT IN NEPAL

Secretary

Administrative Reforms Division
- → Post Management Section
- → Position Classification Section
- → Organisation and Management Section
  - (i). Unit – 1
  - (ii). Unit – 2
- → Planning, Budget and International Administration Section
- → Documentation Section

Personnel Administration Division
- → Personnel Administration Section
- → Personnel Administration Section (Gazetted Officer's Promotion)
- → Rule and Regulation Consultation Section

Training Division
- → Assistants' Training and Typist Recommendation Section
- → Officer's Training Foreign Training and Research Section

on: (*a*) formulation of rules and regulations relating to conditions for appointment in civil service, as also appointment, promotion and departmental action; (*b*) to render advice to the corporations in matters related to the appointment, promotion, departmental action; (*c*) inspection of the concerned offices to find out whether or not the guidance given by the Public Service Commission has been followed and help them to become capable of shouldering the responsibility. The organisation of the commission has been divided into four divisions, testing technique and [examination division; promotion and consultation division; complaint, supervision and administration division; equivalence determination and research division. Administrative Management Department is an administrative agency and it has been established with an objective of making the administrative organisation an efficient and development oriented administration for the achievement of the political, social and economic objectives of the system. It has been entrusted to deal with; (*a*) Administration of the Nepalese administrative service, (*b*) Functions relating to the Public Service Commission, (*c*) Administrative Reforms, and (*d*) Survey of the training requirements of the government.[38]

Nigeria

The National Public Service Commission has been given a constitutional status and performs far more functions than its British counterpart. The public service commission is concerned with all the unexpected administrative officers and other professionals including superscale officers. The ideal of achieving neutrality and objectivity has not yet been attained right from its inception, the commission has been used as agency for achieving the policies of the politicians—first to Nigerianise the civil service and then to regionalise it.[39] The management func-

[38]Eighteenth Report of the Public Service Commission (1977) Statistics and Publication Section: Public Service Commission, Kathmandu, Nepal. *Report of Nepal Administrative Reorganisation Committee,* New Delhi, 1952, p. 18. M.K. Shrestha, *Public Administration in Nepal,* Kathmandu, 1965, p. 8.

[39]Harry A. Green, "Administrative Capacity for Development Proposals for Bureaucratic Reform in Nigeria", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration,* Vol. XX, No. 3, July 1976, pp. 292-307. Abebayo Adedei, "Formulating Administrative Reform Strategies in Africa", *Quarterly Journal*

tions are divided between the Public Service Commission and the Establishment Division of the Ministry of Finance. In general, any matter having a financial aspect is referred to the Controller of Establishments by the Secretary to the Commission before being submitted to the commission. Apart from the addition of Organisation and Methods Units to the Establishment side, the division fairly represents today the division of functions between the Public Service Commission and the Establishment Division of the Ministry of Finance: the former looks after recruitment, entrance examinations, appointments, qualifications for appointment, promotions, transfers, confirmation, promotion and confirmation examinations, discipline, and confidential reports.[40] The latter is in charge of whitley councils and staff negotiations, establishments, gradings, salaries, allowances, conditions of service, staff list and staff records, labour rates and conditions for government labour, wage committees, training within the public service and courses of instruction, invaliding and casualty procedure, transport and travelling allowances. pensions and gratuities, etc.[41]

Pakistan

Two organisations are vested with the bulk of personnel matters involved in adminstering the civil services, the Establishment Division and the Central Public Service Commission. The Commission is subject to the Establishment Division for management purposes but operates separately for recruiting higher civil servants. The responsibility of training and posting, etc., is of the Establishment Division which is organisationally a part of the President's Secretariat. The terms and conditions of a member of the Central Public Service Commission are determined by the Act of the Central Legislature. Previously three separate examinations were involved, a first for the CSP and Foreign Service, a second for the Police Service and a third for the remaining services. In 1963 these were consolidated into a single

[40]D.J. Murray (Ed.), *Studies in Nigerian Administration*, London, Hutchinson, 1978. Aldo Adebayo Adedeji (Ed.), *Nigerian Administration and its Political Setting*, London, Hutchinson, 1969.

[41]Bernard Schaffer, *Administrative Training and Development: A Comparative Study of East Africa, Zambia, Pakistan and India*, New York, Praeger, 1974. Renate Mayntiz and Fritz W. Scharpf, *Policy Making in the*

examination. Since 1960, the Establishment D ivision has emerged to be a central personnel agency of considerable power. It is now responsible for coordinating and directing the training programmes. It has expanded its organisation and methods wing, added a statistical unit and seeks to coordinate research on administration. Administrative Training Council has also been established which promulgated an elaborate training scheme for service through the entire country. The role of Central Public Service Commission has been modified and the commission has no control or say in the appointment of lateral entrants to the unified grades. The Federal Public Service Commission, Act, 1973, spells out the functions as: (a) to conduct tests and examinations for recruitment to (i) the All-Pakistan Services and such posts in connection with the affairs of the Federation; and (ii) such posts in or under a corporation or other body or organisation set up by the Federal Government under any law, may be prescribed; and (b) to advise the President on such matters as may be prescribed relating to terms and conditions of persons who are members of an All-Pakistan Service or hold civil posts in connection with the affairs of the federation.[42]

Philippines

Under PD 807 otherwise known as the Civil Service Decree, the Civil Serviced Commission as the central personnel agency is supposed to implement the following policies of the State viz., to insure and promote the constitutional mandate that appointments in the civil service shall be made only according to merit and fitness, to provide within the public service a progressive system of personnel administration, and to adopt measures to promote morale and the highest degree of responsibility, integrity, loyalty, efficiency, and professionalism in the civil service; that the Civil Service Commission shall be the central

[42]S.R. Maheshwari, "Administrative Reforms in Pakistan", *Indian Journal of Political Science*, Vol. 35, No. 2, 1974, pp. 145-56. Refer: *Administrative Reorganisation Committee*, 1961 (G. Ahmed); *Provincial Administration Commission*, 1960 (Akhter Hussain); *Provincial Reorganisation Committee* (N.A. Faruqui); *Committee on Decentralisation of Institution* (N.A. Faruqui); *Standing Organisation Committee on the Reorganisation of ... Structures of the Central Government in the Light of the*

personnel agency to set standards and to enforce the laws and rules governing the selection, utilisation, training and discipline of civil servants; that a public office is a public trust and public officers shall serve with the highest degree of responsibility, integrity, loyalty and efficiency and shall remain accountable to the people; and that action on personnel matters shall be decentralised, with the different departments and other offices or agencies of the government delegating to their regional offices or other similar units, powers and functions.[43] The commission is composed of a chairman and two commissioners who are appointed by the President for a term of seven years without reappointment. In the office of the chairman of the commission, an executive director is appointed who is responsible for the effective implementation of the policies, rules and standards promulgated, to coordinate and supervise the activities of the different offices in the commission including those of the regional offices. The commission carries out its formulation of training policy by (a) management of administrative training programmes of the government, (b) approval of the training programmes of the different government within the country and outside. There are three divisions—Administrative Reforms Division, Personnel Administration Division and Training Division. The divisions function through the following offices and services: (1) Office of Recruitment, Examination and Selection, (2) Office of Career and Employee Development, (3) Office of Personnel Planning and Programmes Evaluation, (4) Office of Personnel Relations, (5) Office of Legal Affairs, and (6) Administrative Service. Each head of ministry, office, agency, government-owned or controlled corporation and local government is responsible for personnel administration in his office in accordance with the rules, principles, standards, guidelines and regulations established by the commission. Whenever it deems in the interest of the public service, the commission organises in each ministry, office, agency, government-

[43]Albina M. Dams, "The Philippine Civil Service: Structure and Policies", Manila, College of Public Administration, 1977 (Mimeo) and Ledivina V. Carina, "Personnel Policies and Bureaucratic Behaviour under Martial Law", Manila, College of Public Administration, 1977 (Mimeo). R.S. Manglapus, *Philippines: The Silenced Democracy*, New York, Orbis, ᵤ₁₉₇₆

owned or controlled corporation, and provincial and city government a Civil Service Staff headed by an officer of the commission. This serves as the principal liaision between the commission and the ministry concerned provides technical assistance in all aspects of personnel management; monitors and audits periodically the personnel practices and performance of the ministry or agency concerned as well as those of public officers and employees thereat; and determines agency compliance with Civil Service Law and rules.[44]

Sri Lanka

Public Service Commission has a constitutional status which ensures its independence. In terms of Articles 55 to 61 of the Constitution of the Democratic Socialists Republic of Sri Lanka, the power of appointment, transfer and disciplinary control of Additional Secretaries, Heads of Departments and officers of similar level is vested with the Cabinet of Ministers. The appointments of Secretaries, is the prerogative of the President. In regard to the other public officers the Cabinet of Ministers has delegated such power to the Public Service Commission which in turn has redelegated them to Secretaries to Ministries in the case of Staff Grades and to Heads of Departments in the case of others.[45] The Office of the Director of Establishments, functioning under the Ministry of Public Administration is the central personnel agency of government and is responsible for laying down procedures and codes of conduct, the approval of schemes of recruitment and promotions and the determination of salaries and allowances of all public officers. Recent trends have been towards the reclassification of jobs into combined services according to the different disciplines and also on the basis of salary levels and responsibilities, considerably reducing thereby the multiplieity of posts and salary scales and also facilitating a certain degree of uniformity in personnel

[44]Onojre D. Corpuz, *The Bureaucracy in the Philippines*, Manila, College of Public Administration, 1967. Ferel Heady, "The Philippine Administrative System—A Fusion of East and West," in Siffin, *Towards the Comparative Study of Public Administration*, pp. 253-277.
[45]James Jupp, *Sri Lanka—Third World Democracy*, London, Frank Cass, 1978, p. 232. W.A. Wiswawarnapala, *Civil Service Administration in Ceylon,*

management by vesting the control of such services in the Ministry of Public Administration. The Ministry of Finance has the responsibility for creation of posts and authorising increase in cadres ensuring thereby budgetary control over the public service. The resuscitation of the Public Service Commission under the Constitution has provided an appellate body for all public servants, and the proposed setting up of the office of an 'Ombudsman' or Parliamentary Commissioner as provided for in the Constitution will provide a means of redress to the citizens against the acts of public servants[46].

Tanzania

There is a separate Establishment Division through which the government exercises control of the civil service and ensures that it is in good shape to serve as an efficient and effective machinery. The main functions are to supervise the day-to-day administration of the civil service to provide an advisory service for ministries and departments on civil service matters, to ensure efficiency and economy, to decide principles of pay determination and to see that the civil service is one balanced smooth running integrated machine and not an aggregation of independent units pulling in different directions. It is part of the President's office and has seven divisions, each dealing separately with: (a) staff complements and grading policy; (b) salaries structure, (c) staff inspection and job analysis, (d) general conditions of service, recruitment and training policies and programmes, (e) pensions and allowances, (f) organisation and methods. The Public Service Commission is charged with responsibility for making appointments, promotions and transfers in the service and for handling all matters concerning discipline.[47] The Constitution has vested these

[46]*Report of the Committee appointed to Report on the Ceylon Administrative Services*, S.P. VI-1966 and *Report of the Committee on Administrative Reforms*, S.P. IX-1966. Richard L. Houris and Robert N. Kearney, "A Comparative Analysis of the Administrative Systems of Canada and Ceylon", *Administrative Science Quarterly*, VIII, 1963, p. 356. *Report of the Royal Commission on Constitutional Reforms*, 1945 (Chairman: Soulbury).

[47]A.L. Adu, "The Administrator and Change" in A.H. Rweyemamu and G. Hyden (Eds.), *A Dacade of Public Administration in Africa*, Nairobi,. E.A.L. Bureau, 1975, pp. 25-28.

powers in the President and the commission has only delegated powers to act executively over certain classes of posts. It has also limited advisory powers and the commission is empowered to make delegations to heads of departments and other authorised officers usually in respect of the very junior posts. The commission is established completely by an Act of Parliament which defines its powers, its membership, etc.[48]

Thailand

The civil service is governed by the Civil Service Act of 1954 and subsequent amendments. The Act prescribes broad personnel policies, determines rank and salary schedules and classifies all government officials into eight categories, *viz.*, political officials, ordinary officials, state commercial officials, teaching officials, etc. The Civil Service Act provides for a Civil Service Commission which consists of 5-7 members who have held high positions in the civil service not below the rank of Director-General. The Prime Minister and the Deputy Prime Minister are the *ex officio* Chairman and Vice-Chairman respectively of the Commission. The commission is responsible for centralised review of personnel practices in all the ministries.[49] The personnel actions of each ministry is under a civil service sub-commission composed of the minister and his deputy, under-secretaries and the departmental heads. Though the National Civil Service Commission is legally entrusted with the authority over personnel management for the entire government, in practice there is decentralisation of this authority which enables the ministries and departments to operate independently in personnel matters concerning their organisations. In matters like classification and compensation rules, the commission has the ultimate power to grant or withhold the approval. Further, it is mainly concerned with procedural routine and a somewhat perfunctory review of personnel action by the ministry. Promotions are decided by the Director-General or Under Secretary of his department with the approval of the Civil Service

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[48]A.L. Adu, "The Administrator and Change", *op. cit.*

[49]Amara Raksasataya, "Preparing Administrators for National Development: Thailand Experience", in Hahn-Been and Abelardo C. Samante, *op. cit.*, Ch. VIII.

Sub-Commission of the ministry concerned.[50]

The arrangements for coordinating personnel functions in various countries described above indicate that there has been a lot of changes in the recent decades. For example in the United Kingdom post-Fulcton developments are significant as well as substantial. In very few of the states, there has been a sharp break with the past, despite political renunciations and administrative enquiries. Each of the state has retained an apparatus of discrete cadre entities, but the dominance of the generalist administrator still prevails by and large. The paramountcy of the central secretariat remains in most of the systems; although it is probably comparatively less in developed countries. The prestige and popularity of government service generally and of the elite cadre particularly continues to be there though the private sector and corporate sector is posing some challenges of late. In many cases, certain specific cadres control administrative system and oppose structural reorganisation and revision. Thus there is a need to set up a separate agency to take care of all these developments lest they should go unnoticed and unanalysed.

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[50]W.J. Siffin, *The Thai Bureaucracy, Institutional Change and Development*, Honolulu, East-West Centre, 1966, Ch. II.

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Some Emerging Trends

Growth in functions of administration has meant increase in the powers of bureaucracy, which calls for greater efficiency as well as accountability. The movement towards professionalisation of the civil service has also increasingly necessitated proper scrutiny and evaluation. Central personnel agencies or other organisations or institutions entrusted with similar tasks keep themselves in touch with the latest trends by basing their efforts on a wide variety of activities including organisation and methods, work statistical analysis, cost-benefit studies, systems analysis for computer projects, etc. Another factor why these agencies are becoming more important is the rational rearrangement of organisational design and personnel policy stemming from considerations of higher productivity and maintenance of employee satisfaction. The general administrator himself has to cultivate a greater understanding and grasp of economic and technological forces.[1]

The human resource approach, which views the productivity of employees as being an economic resource of an organisation is fast catching up. While the performance is measured by the

[1] V.A. Pai Panandikar, *Personnel System for Development Administration,* Bombay, Popular Prakashan, 1966, p. 199. F.C. Mosher, "The Public Service in the Temporary Society." *Public Administration Review,* Vol. XXXI, No. 1, 1971, p. 51. Refer Donald Nylen, "Problems of Personnel Management and Training in Public Organisation and Private Firms in Africa", in *Papers of the African Conference of Directors of Central Personnel Agencies or Civil Service Commissions and Directors of Public Administration Institutes,* Addis Ababa, May, 1964.

economic criteria of productivity, efficiency, effectiveness costs, and profitability, employees themselves in their inter-personnel relationships are viewed as having dignity, worth and value. The economic aspect is adhered to while the philosophical aspect of recognising and respecting the personal dignity of every individual is also given credence.[2]

The rapid expansion of developmental activities has created complex problems and the greatest single obstacle to progress is the shortage of trained manpower. It follows that this problem can be surmounted only by instituting right type of personnel policy with the objective of producing, as rapidly as possible, the skilled and knowledgeable personnel needed in modern administration. In scientific management, efficiency is understood to be synonymous with economy in operations.

Training, if properly organised and motivated, enables the public servants to understand ways in which they eliminate waste, make optimum use of material resources to greater advantage and reduce the cost of the activities for which they have immediate responsibility.[3] The present critical study of the personnel systems in select developed and developing countries reveals a number of common features generally applicable to a group of states, by whatever way they may be classified. Experiences of these countries indicate some guidelines for identification and implementation of some of the needs of administration. The spread of literacy, national pride and

[2]T.N. Chaturvedi, "Development: The Dynamics, Thorns and Thistles" in S.K. Sharma (Ed.), *Dynamics of Development: An International Perspective*, Concept, New Delhi, 1978, pp. 693-709. International Labour Office, *Time for Transition: A Mid-term Review of the Second United Nations Development Decade*, 1975. Charles J. Coleman, *Personnel: An Open System Approach*, Cambridge, Minthrop, 1979, Ch. I. Brian G. Weinstein, *African Schools of Public Administration: A Report to the Agency for International Development*, African Studies Centre, Boston University, 1965, pp. 42-44.

[3]Hamzah Merghami, "Public Administration in Developing Countries— The Multilateral Approach", in *Public Administration: A Key to Development*, Washington, Graduate School, 1964, p. 36.; Barrie O. Pettman, (Ed.), *Government Involvement in Training*, Bradford, MOB, 1978, Ch. I. Desmond Keeling, "The Development of Central Training in the Civil Service, 1963-1970", *Public Administration*, London, Vol. XLIV, 1971, pp. 51-71. Tarlok Singh, "Administration for Development" in V.A. Pai Panandikar (Ed.), *Development Administration in India*, Delhi, Macmillan, 1974, pp. 1-12.

communication media have helped in the transition of colonial systems of administration into a national administration. The countries which had colonial heritage numbering almost one-sixth of the sovereign states provide an exceptional area of study. The size and command of personnel is different, and so is the variation in political philosophies. Though working in varied environments, civil services still have certain basic concepts in common. Civil services, for instance are separated from the general body of wage or salary earners. All the countries of the world operate or claim to operate, career systems based on considerations of merit providing security of service and advancement.[4] For most of the African states, the eighties and the nineties may well be a period of reform just as the last decade had been one of independence and the establishment of modern administrative systems. Time is not yet ripe for major administrative reforms because the environment is still unfavourable; "the political and administrative elite remain unreceptive to a radical overhaul of the administrative system; and the idea that major reforms are required.[5]" There is a need to integrate the reform plan with the overall national socio-economic plan. Isolated proposals or approaches may on the contrary create distortions. For example Millsodoi Commission in Ghana recommended substantial deconcentration and decentralisation, the military regime in Nigeria reacted sharply against the excesses of public enterprises. Besides, the problems of the late developing countries of Asia and Latin America which did not have a recent colonial experience is also useful because the problem with them is not one of previous experiences with a highly developed administrative service, it is

[4]P.T. Bauer, *Economic Analysis and Policy in Underdeveloped Countries*, London, Duke University Press, 1957, Ch. III. *Handbook of Civil Service Laws and Practices*, New York, United Nations, 1966, Part I. C.P. Bhambhri, *Administrators in a Changing Society*, Delhi, National, 1972, *Bureaucracy and Politics in India*, Delhi, Vikas, 1971.

[5]*Interregional Seminar on Administrative Reforms in Developing Countries*, New York, United Nations, 1971, Vol. II, p. 72. Andrew M. Kamarck, *The Economics of African Development*, New York, Praeger, 1972, Ch. XI. Ken Post, *The New States of West Africa*, 2nd Edn., Harmondsworth, 1968. Refer *Papers of United Nations Seminar on Urgent Administrative Problems of African Countries*, Addis-Ababa, October, 1962.

rather their effort to develop a strong enough administrative service so as to give the state a firmer and more stable form. The principles and rules which characterise the system adopted by the state seldom apply to the exclusion of all others, to the whole of the administrative staff. In no country is the civil service system the result of a fully implemented theoretical plan. It is the evolution and culmination of a change due to transformation in the public mind and in social behaviour. The unit service regime of a country is closely linked with its political and social condition. Mere changes in the role and character of government, and modifying qualifications of personnel or comprehensive overhauling would not be sufficient. Streamlining the personnel system has to be regarded as a matter of faith; a form of creative destruction in that an old order is replaced by a new one in conformity with emerging needs.

EMERGING TRENDS

In all countries, there are detailed provisions written or otherwise which regulate the personnel system. There is little accord, and hardly any uniformity on the form which is applied. To go into each detail without getting submerged requires only a selective treatment. It would have been possible to group countries whose administration share some common factors which can be either dominant political ideology, a common history, a common influence or even common problems. In this chapter, an effort has been made to identify some emerging trends with reference to how the solutions are being offered to tackle administrative problems. A meticulous listing of details has been intentionally avoided and the analysis seeks to bring out the following salient trends. Personnel system involves a very large number of items but the trend analysis below deals with only a few broad categories. Effort has been made to concentrate attention on major policy issues only and for those who are interested in details, references have been cited. There is not much evidence which currently exists which can be used to test the validity of some of the statements which follow. In spite of the importance of personnel policies for building more effective civil services and in spite of detailed

discussions in seminars and conferences, there has been little empirical investigation into actual personnel practices. Until more field work or systematic investigation is done, discussion of personnel policies will have to continue on a theoretical plane which may be useful but possibly not much helpful to current realities. In the absence of any empirical crossnational evidence, an effort has been made to establish a general perspective on the problems of personnel administration with the aim of understanding the essential characteristics of the system.

Disproportionate Proliferation

The greatest problem which is affecting most of the countries is of expanding number of civil servants. There seems to be an inherent capacity to expand, thus neutralising the development gains of the national resources. In Indonesia, Malaysia, Philippines, India, Pakistan, Bangladesh and the African countries, public bureaucracies were foreign institutions introduced by the colonial powers for the attainment of a specific goal, *i.e.*, consolidating colonial rule. Therefore, when they became independent the functions increased leading to rapid increase in the number of civil servants. Limiting the number and keeping the establishment charges within reasonable limits is a problem facing most central personnel agencies. On the other hand, in some countries good personnel policy has been subordinated in an undesirable way due to financial considerations. The problem of growth of personnel has four aspects: (*a*) quantum and the rate of growth, (*b*) different rates of growth at different levels in government organisations indicating structural change, (*c*) proliferating organisations creating probelms of duplication, and coverage, (*d*) difficulties regarding supervision, discipline and work output. Systematic surveys of employment have been undertaken in Australia, Canada, USA, UK and some other countries.[6] The sudden expansion to start with and continued expansion thereafter has resulted in ad-hoc methods of adjustment and in indiscriminate filling of posts with-

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[6]*New Approaches to Personnel Policy for Development*, New York, United Nations, 1974, Ch. I. John Coat, *Recruit to Revolution: Adventure and Politics in Indonesia*, L. Christophers, 1952. *Conference on Education and Occupational Selection in West Africa*, University College of Ghana, 1960.

out much concern for quality. Unemployment and rapid population growth has increased the pressures for government employment in Philippines in violation or circumvention of civil service laws. The democratic process itself, to some extent is responsible for the faster expansion at the top. This unplanned expansion affects the opportunities of promotion, flattens the pyramid and widens the span of command to an unmanageable extent. In Bangladesh, it has been noticed that there was proliferation of ministries and divisions and far too many corporations were created since liberation without giving due thought to their scope of activities and other necessary factors so that there was considerable overlap, confusion and wastage of manpower and financial resources. The Japanese civil service has grown remarkably with a five-fold increase in the twenty year period between 1940 and 1960 and a slower rate of change since. Increasing functions of government and diversification of its activities have led to the creation of new organisations which had, in turn, created a demand for new personnel. This proliferation whenever it has occurred, has been due to one or more of the factors such as undertaking unimportant functions, unnecessary duplication at the headquarters and the field organisation, greater centralisation of power and authority, too much of state intervention in private economy. The inevitable and inexorable expansion of the civil service appear to command complete approval and some expansion has been accepted. In many countries like France, West Germany, many advisory bodies and committees of enquiry have been set up to look into the cost and efficiency of the public services.[7]

Centralisation of Functions

The trend is towards bringing almost all personnel functions under the single roof of a central personnel agency. In Japan, Australia, and Philippines the roles of the National Personnel Authority, the Public Service Board and the Civil Services Commission respectively approximate to the role and functions of

[7] *Selection and Recruitment in the Public Services of Developing Countries,* New York, U.N. 1968. *The Development of Senior Administrators in Developing Countries: Report of the United Nations Interregional Seminar on the Development of Senior Administrators in the Public Service of Developing Countries,* New York, UN, 1969.

the Civil Service Commission in the USA before the passing of
the new Act. As contradistinguished from this trend is the situa
t on which obtains in some other countries. For instance, in
West Germany a feature of public services is that the whole pro-
cess of recruitment and training is highly dispersed in the sense
that each of the three tiers, local, land and federal government
perform these functions independently. Many observers wonder
how such a fragmented system can work effectively and deliver
the goods. This can largely be attributed to the high tradition
of public services in West Germany. The USA presents a
different kind of example as far as a central personnel agency
at the federal level is concerned. The President as the hub of
all administrative activities, keeps a keen watch over personnel
problems through his executive office. At various times, com-
missions like the one headed by Hoover have recommended
setting up of President's Committee on Administrative Manage-
ment. Various Presidents took different steps to fill this lacuna.
In Iran, the High Council had been charged with making a
comprehensive examination of the administrative structure and
of the civil service law and personnel practices. For a number
of years, the Home Ministry exercised overall personnel admini-
stration functions in Nepal. Public Service Commission was res-
pon ible for recruitment, promotion, discipline and Ministry of
Law and Justice in interpretation of existing laws and those
orders which related to such recruitment and conditions of
service. This anomalous position of more than one agency be-
ing esponsible for the control of personnel administration
functions had been removed with the creation of the Depart-
ment of Administrative Management. We have already refer-
red to the working of the Civil Service Department subsequent
to Fulton's recommendation in the UK.

Concept of the State

How a state looks at its role, also has a very great influence
on a civil service system. When the state has been established
as a unifying and centralising power the administration and its
officials have been given within it a specified role, a privileged
position. In most of the European countries, administration has
been used as an effective instrument for the creation and main-
tenance of national unity. The administration, which is embodi-

ment of the state, has never been looked upon in France as an
enterprise or an aggregate of services. In African states, civil
services play a positive role in the affairs of the state and accept
and retain the initiative in determining operational policies that
are designed to match the political, economic and social policies
of the government. On the other hand in the countries where
there prevails a different concept of the role of administration,
the situation is different. In United States, administration is
not considered as an institution holding prerogatives outside
common law. In an egalitarian society the civil servant is a res-
ponsible servant of the people. The existence of a privileged
body of public officials is inconceivable. And it is the people
themselves who can be called to operate the public services.
The political system in the Polish People's Republic for exam-
ple, is based upon people's councils which, being the territorial
organs of the state, are directly elected by the population of the
given territorial unit. The German official is bound to the state
for life, and his private life is greatly influenced by his private
activity. Ultimately civil service in its life and work should
effectively and positively respond to a nation's will and be able
to act in consonance with urgency of the political situation of
all new countries. It should work to earn the trust and confi-
dence of the government and the people so that it is enabled to
establish itself as the permanent and stabilising force necessary
for orderly progress in the State and towards the well-being of
the people.[8] Administration is not, in fact, considered by the
French to be a job like any other; the civil service, unique in
its nature, is therefore, controlled by laws peculiar to it. In
France the autonomy of the service is too deeply rooted in cus-
tom, too closely linked with the very notion of the service for
future change to affect it. The concept of administration ad-
hered to by the Public Service Board in Australia incorporates
both management and policy-advising. Nepal administration
reflects primary concern with national security and the control
process of law and order. In African states, one of the politi-
cal legacies of the colonial period is, the need to build a sense

[8]A.L. Adu, *The Civil Service in New African States*, London, Allen and
Unwin, 1965, p. 235. *Decentralisation for National and Local Development*,
New York, UN, 1962, p. 89.

of nationhood in states whose boundaries except in a few case, have no logical reason for existence. If nation-building is to achieve its ultimate goal of providing welfare services to the people, administrative development as a most critical factor must be attained in the furtherance of political development and modernisation. The political rulers specially of the new states are adequately in command of political power and the real problem is that administration lacks adequate power and capability to further economic and social development. The goal of improving administrative performance should, therefore, be linked with what the state wants to achieve. That the processes may be weak in some countries is no argument for making their professional administration also weak.[9]

Constitutional Status

There has been a tendency to include some provisions relating to the civil services in the constitutional document. Added recognition is acquired when the supreme document mentions the need to establish an efficient, honest civil service. It also is an indication that the endeavour of the civil servants are of some consequence to the state. It is not easy to amend the constitutional law; and thus the civil servants are protected from ill-considered and hasty action. In countries like Canada and USA, the agencies dealing with services have sought to be strengthened and their roles enlarged even though these have not been accorded statutory status. It appears that in those countries where there has been concentration of most of the personnel functions under one umbrella, the central personnel agencies have been clothed with statutory powers, while in others where there is absence of constitutional status more than one agency is involved in performance of personnel functions. The bestowal of statutory status indicates the intention of the law makers to accord independent status to personnel agencies.[10]

[9]*New Approaches to Personnel Policy for Development*, New York, UN, 1966, p. 7. Joseph La Palombara, *Bureaucracy and Political Development*, Princeton, N.J., 1963. Milton J. Esman, *Administration and Development in Malaysia*, London, Cornell University Press, 1972.

[10]K.C. Wheare, *The Civil Service under the Constitution*, London, University of London, 1954, p. 32. S.A. de Smith, *The New Commonwealth And Its Constitutions*, London, Steven, 1964, Ch. IV. L.S. Amery, *Thoughts on the Constitution*, London, 1947, pp. 15-16.

In Japan, the constitution lays down certain general provisions about the public service system. In Korea, the constitution provides a broad framework under which the civil service operates. The selection, tenure, conduct, status and advancement of the civil service are governed by the Philippine Constitution. In India, the constitution provides for independent civil service commissions at the centre and in the states for purposes of recruitment. In Sri Lanka, the constitution set up a Public Service Commission whose independence is secured by various provisions. Ghana has fairly detailed constitution which includes provisions dealing with the civil service. The public services are dealt in a separate chapter in the constitution of Nigeria and France. What different countries deem fit for inclusion in their constitution differs but the trend is to regard civil services as a major organ of the state. Apart from the constitution, civil service status may be guaranteed either by the general social conditions of the society or through legislation. The former works from within and presupposes great political understanding but the later is mechanical and works from without. It is, however, more certain and specific, and more popular in developing countries many of which lack well-established traditions of administrative ethics. A large number of countries fall in between the two systems and rely upon law as well as customs and executive regulations.[11]

Emphasis on Position Classification

Every country adopts some kind of a classification plan based on an assumed equivalence of the work content in the different levels of the various occupational groups. Classification system of jobs is present in almost all the countries and where it has not been done on the basis of pay, occupational groups have been formed. In the United Kingdom, following the recommendations of the Fulton Committee, a decision has been taken to abolish the various classes and replace them by

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[11]Henry Parris, *Constitutional Bureaucracy*, London, George Allen and Unwin, 1969, Ch. I. B.O. Nwabuze,*Constitutionalism in the Emergent States*, Eugene G. Hurst, 1973, Ch. II. M.J. Vile, *Constitutionalism and the Separation of Powers*, London, Clarendon. 1967. Ch. VI.

occupational groups, some of which would be formed by the merger of two or more related classes. Other commonwealth countries like Canada and Australia also broadly follow this practice. In Malaysia, the division is not based on pay ranges but on the minimum eductional qualifications prescribed for entry. France follows India's pattern but in West Germany, division is based on occupational differences, method of recruitment and the pay range admissible to each service. In United States, there are hundreds of occupational groups known as 'Series' comprising individual posts at various levels and such groupings are available in Australia and Canada. The Classification Act (1949) stipulates that the positions which are sufficiently similar in kind or subject matter of work, level of difficulty and responsibility and the qualification requirements of the work as to warrant similar treatment in personnel and pay administration should form a class or class of positions.[12] The system of classification has always created problems at the beginning stage. This has been due to unfamiliarity of the affected people with the new system and the lack of expertise of those who initiate ambitious measures without preparing any preventive measures. When rank classification is changed into position classification, serious and complex problems arise. The officials normally do not have clear understanding that the classification of positions utilises job as the guideline, not the academic qualifications, seniority or the salaries. A very serious effort has been made in Thailand to introduce position classification taking all these factors into consideration. During the implementation of the Civil Service Act of 1975, the administrative system utilising rank classification of the former periods was totally abolished and replaced by position classification with the exception of the university and teaching officials who are still under the academic rank classification and the police officials who are

[12]Department of Economic and Social Affairs, *Introduction and Administration of Position Classification and Pay Plans*, New York, 1976, Part IV. O. Glenn Stahl, *Public Personnel Administration*, New York, Harper, 1976, Ch. V. U.S. Civil Service Commission, *Classification Principles and Policies*, Personnel Management Series No. 16, Washington, June 1963.

under the military rank system.[13]

Preference for Merit Principle

There is a widespread ambivalence of thinking about civil services. Most of the states accept, as an ideal, the impartial civil servant and take even legal steps to secure it. At occasions, the rules and regulations which have been provided, may be by passed, or ignored, or obstructed precisely by those responsible for its existence and entrusted with its implementation. The concept of conferring constitutional safeguard (almost like judiciary) on the Public Service Commission is being questioned. In many cases, it is supposed to be a hangover of colonial times when selection of personnel particularly at higher levels was considered a task to be performed by persons who could take an independent judicious view rather than a task which required specialisation in personnel problems. Of late, the tendency is towards regarding the task of selection and recruitment as a specialised one to be performed by experts. The principle of recruitment by merit is being increasingly recognised gradually under the two fold pressure of practical necessity and of the change of ideas.[14] The merit system by no means is steelproof as a number of posts are usually unclassified and do not fall within the purview of the civil service commissions. In practice they are still allocated on the recommendation of local elected authorities. The excitement caused by certain reports of the public service commissions in India placed before the legislatures and certain scandals have fortunately cut down their number. The spirit, if not the letter, of the merit system demands open competition wherever feasible. A non-competitive examination procedure

[13]Manual to the Central Organisation of Nepal: 2034 V.S. (1979 A.D.) Organisation and Management Section, Administrative Management Department, Kathmandu, Nepal. Civil Service Commission, *Position Classification in the Thai Civil Service*, Bangkok, 1977, p. 12. M.M. Kohli, *Position Classification Project: A Feasibility Report* (Mimeo), Delhi, IIPA, 1968, pp. 14-39. *Report of the Committee on Position Classification and Pay Plans in the Public Services of the Civil Service Assembly of United States and Canada*, p. 45.

[14]Frank R. Soranf, "The Silent Revolution in Patronage", *Public Administration Review*, Winter 1960, p. 34. U.S. Civil Service Commission, *The Federal Career Service—At Your Service*, Washington, 1969. Section on Selecting the Career Worker.

can result in good selection but it may not result in the best qualified. In many countries, competition is arranged only by means of the traditional ranking by numerical rating. At many places, where services are grouped into many jobs, examination methods hardly lend themselves to finer distinctions. There has been at times political reasons for exemption of specific positions from the ordinary processes of merit selection and there is a tendency to exploit such provisions. The central personnel agency instead of holding against such a trend, becomes a focal point for partisan political preserves. On the other hand central personnel authority in Japan is aimed at protecting employees' status from political pressure by assuring the neutrality of personnel administration. Although fault may be found with individual decisions, "the overall statistics tend to support service. Any ground that has been surrendered has been yielded grudgingly against the superior fire power."[15]

Key Role of Public Service Commissions

The public service commissions are a common feature of most of the democracies today. Their functions and powers may vary but their basic purpose is the same. They provide a check on the democratic 'recklessness' of the political governments in controlling the civil service. They extend the sphere of public control over the services without making them a part of the competitive struggle for political power. In Malaysia, Kenya, India and Pakistan the commissions perform a part of the personnel functions while other functions are shared with the Directorate of Personnel in Kenya, Public Service Department in Malaysia, Department of Personnel and Administrative Reforms in India. In some countries there is also a tendency to set up specialised recruitment commissions for services like judiciary, police, teachers, railways, etc. The idea of separate commissions for specialised functions is popular specially in those countries which were under the colonial rule. The civil service commissions of the US, Canada, Australia, Thailand, Philippines, and Sri Lanka have functions which are far more

[15]Donald R. Harvey, *The Civil Service Commission*, Washington, Praeger, 1970, p. 50. B. Berkson, *Ethics, Politics and Education*, Eugene, Oregon, 1968, p. 210.

comprehensive.[16] Care is taken that the public service commis-
sions when created are independent of political patronage and
external pressures. The usual methods used are to avoid appoint-
ment of active civil servants and politicians, guarantee security of
tenure and the protection of the conditions of service. In many
countries their fairness have been challenged. Complaints too
are not solely of corruption, they are of inefficiency and irres-
ponsibility. In Africa, for example, at no time were public service
commissions viewed as a safeguard against arbitrary appoint-
ment. The commissions are regarded as remote and negative
institutions by some. In most of the countries where the recruit-
ment is entrusted to public service commissions, inordinate de-
lays have been reported due to: (*a*) inadequate advance planning
of recruitment, (*b*) incomplete requisitions resulting in protracted
correspondence, (*c*) delay caused by non-availability of adequate
accommodation for conducting examinations, (*d*) delay in the
verification of character and antecedents, (*e*) delay in ascertain-
ing the final preference of candidates in the case of common
examinations for a number of services or posts, (*f*) holding
over of the medical examination till after the verification of
character and antecedents, (*g*) delay in the issue of appointment
orders after all other formalities have been completed. Many
public service commissions are burdended with the task of
conducting departmental examinations either for promotion,
confirmation or test of proficiency, etc. In spite of various
limitations, in those countries where commissions have been
bypassed or neglected, the spoil system has taken place, an
inefficient and disorganised civil service has been the inevitable
result and corruption has been rampant.[17]

Insistence on Competitive Examinations

The content of the examination for the higher non-technical
services has remained practically unchanged for the last many

[16]Refer *Royal Commission on Government in Canada* (Chairman: J. Grant
Glassco): *Royal Commission of Enquiry on the State Services in New Zea-
land* (Chairman: Mr. Justice McCarthy).

[17]*The Public Service of Nigeria: Government Views on the Report of
the Public Service Commission*, Lagos, 1974. *White Paper on the Second
and Final Report of the Wages and Salaries Review Commission*, 1970-71,
Lagos, 1971. *Ceylon Salaries and Cadre Commission* 1961 (Chairman: W.A.
Pereira).

years. Too much reliance is placed on the examination which seeks to find out the best intellectual ability and mental discipline by an academic test in the subject of candidate's choice. There is heavy dependence on an assessment of academic knowledge in most cases and less of attention is paid to human and personal qualities like commitment to service, leadership, etc. Though reliance on written test has not been ruled out, many countries have started using the objective type of examinations or combining these with essay type questions. In Japan, for example the National Public Service Law provides that employment of personnel shall be made on the basis of examination results, the record of work performance or the evaluation of other demonstrated activities. Broadly speaking, a degree is an essential qualification for recruitment in most of the cases but there is equally a reaction that such insistence is superfluous. It has led in developing countries to over-crowding in the higher institutions of learning and is considerably responsible for the deterioration of the educational standards. There are many jobs which require intellectual ability, maturity of outlook. In some spheres what is most needed is judgment, insight and fairmindedness, in others, an intellectual equipment capable of the ready mastery of complex and abtruse problem.[18] The task of public servant in the welfare state demand that a proportion of candidates for higher services should be reserved to candidates possessing specialised education in some branch of the social sciences. The British way of testing the candidate as a whole, of trying to find out the man and not only his intellectual brilliance is basically sound and better than the French system. It is strange that there is very little scientific analysis and control in various phases of testing and selection. The findings of the psychological research laboratories are not made much use of. Another trend is to make greater and greater use of electronic devices by reducing maximum data to numerical codes, with the result that vast quantities of information is stored on discs, tapes, or cards. Much of the drudgery of mass examining operations is slowly being eliminated.

[18]*Report of the Public Service Commission of British Commonwealth Countries*, p. 157. Sir James Grigg, "British Civil Service," in J.E. Mclean (Ed.), *The Public Service and University Education*, Princeton, 1949, p. 100.

Information available is far more extensive, far more readily available and in far better condition for analysis. There are comparatively many standardised education scales available to the personnel administration which can be used with profit to determine relative merit.[19]

Career Systems Favoured

It is increasingly being realised that merit system for selection was not enough and conditions should be created that would provide good careers for those who entered the service giving opportunities for satisfying advancement. The Report of the Commission of Enquiry on Public Personnel System in USA in 1935 emphasised the 'holding' power of the employer and this philosophy has continued to influence the planning of personnel systems since that time. In United Kingdom, the civil service is an institution whose members are expected to devote their working lives to the service of the crown. The movement of persons particularly those in professional, research and managerial fields, among industrial, educational, and public places of employment is a distinctive American phenomenon. In India, Bangladesh, Pakistan, Thailand, Malaysia, and the African states, the exigencies of specialisation and technology are exerting a strong influence to alter or eliminate the compartmentalisation of civil servants into arbitrary cadres determined at the point of entry and to permit free movement to posts based on 'individual qualifications rather than on the membership of a particular class'.[20] Most of the countries divide the civil service by functions; into services in general administration and a number of departmental services. The general service is common to all departments and its members are normally interchangeable between departments. In France, civil servants are organised in a civil service, designed to provide a career for

[19]J.J. Donovan (Ed.), *Recruitment and Selection in the Public Service*, Chicago. Public Personnel Association, 1968. Donald R. Harvey, *The Civil Service Commission*, Washington, Praeger, 1970.

[20]R.N. Rapport, *Mid-Career Development*, London, Tavistock Publications, 1970. Philippine Bureau of Civil Service, *Report on a Survey of Personnel Practices in the National Government*, 1958, p. 66. *Personnel Administration in the Public Service*. Report of the Civil Service Commission of Canada, Ottawa, 1958, pp. 7-8.

those attracted to it. Entry to a service offers a career normally confined to that service and that class, sometimes involving grade promotion by selection for the efficient. Many countries are faced with the problem of providing the promised career systems based on merit without providing a protected haven for the incompetent or mediocre. Many central personnel agencies are imposing limitations on the state's freedom of action. It took developed countries decades to develop and establish the concepts and practices of a career system. African countries on the other hand are operating the system with its various concepts without being socially and politically ready for it. In some countries there has been a comparative success and their experience can contribute to others. There are, however, no exportable readymade solutions. If the real situation is bad, it is necessary to look for a remedy appropriate to the context.[21] Modern technology and the proliferation of occupational specialities specially in the advanced countries have opened innumerable opportunities to civil servants. In many countries, there is a cooperative endeavour or exchange of specialists between various sectors because liberal legislation at various levels has permitted and encouraged a variety of patterns.

Representative Bureaucracy

Recent studies on the soocial background of top administrators in some of the countries have shown that higher civil servants might be said to form a 'distant social group' or to serve as the 'representative' of the upper classes, but as efforts are being made to broadbase the civil service representation, the composition is changing though the pace is slow. It is interesting to note that social perspectives having entered the bureaucracy through the recruitment process, and reflecting the social background of civil servants, has been an important

[21]Frederick C. Mosher, *Democracy and the Public Service*, New York, O.U.P., 1968. O. Glenn Stahl, "Of Jobs and Men", *Public Administration Review*, July 1969, pp. 379-84. Harold H. Leich, "Rank in Man or Job? Both", *Public Administration Review*, Spring 1960, pp. 92-99.

theme in recent administrative studies.[22] The basic argument has been that bureaucrats carry their class prejudices into their official life and only when all classes are properly represented in the civil service will the different viewpoints get due consideration. Studies have shown that higher civil service in India is largely drawn from a small (10%) section of the community. The position is no different in most advanced as well as developing countries, as the middle class occupational groups dominate the higher civil service to the extent of 80 to 85 per cent. Iranian civil service reflects in its composition an increasing number and proportion of members with higher educational qualifications. In Australia, for several decades, both the commonwealth public service and the various state services were recruited at the school-leaving level and the junior school level. The recruitment was for routine jobs and promotion to higher positions was selective.[23] It kept the best people out. India, Bangladesh and Pakistan differ from the more advanced ones esssentially in the high degree of its over-representation which depends on the proportionate strength of the middle class in the total work force. Kingsley's work and Kelsall's detailed study were undertaken due to sporadic changes made about the unrepresentative character of the British civil service. Bottomore's researches into the French higher services were inspired by contemporary monopoly. Many attribute the success of American democracy to the representative character of the Federal civil service. On the other hand Bruce Hacket has observed that, "the finding that higher civil servants in the United States have been drawn from a rather broad social base in contrast to the traditional experience of some European societies, might be viewed as evidence that in this case recruitment has been mainly on the basis of talent or technical proficiency

[22]Norton Long, *The Polity*, Chicago, 1962, p. 70. Van Riper Warner. *et. al. The American Federal Executive*, O.U.P., 1963. Egbert. S. Wengert, "Some Thoughts on Executive Development in the Philippine Government", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration*, Vol. II, No. 4, October, 1958.

[23]For these studies refer V. Subramanian, "Representative Bureaucracy: A Reassessment", *American Political Science Review*, Washington, 1967. Harold M. Hodges (Jr.), *Social Stratification: Class in America*, Scherkan, Cambridge, 1964. T. Feyzioglu, "The Reforms of the French Civil Service Since 1945-57", London, Vol. XXXIII, pp. 75-78.

rather than social considerations. The bureaucracy has also been viewed as a representative institution, differing from its European counterparts mainly in being more "democratic in this respect".[24] In Africa, the public view of the government service has been one of suspicion. There is still too much of a tendency for civil servants to regard themselves as privileged intellectual elite removed from the politicians as well as from the masses from whom they are socially distinct.

Preference for Lateral Entry

Different kinds of skills and degrees of intellectual ability are required at different levels and for different functions. Whereas effort is generally made to produce the various skills institutionally, the minimum number of levels of entry depends on the nature of this production. When an employee remains in an organisation for a long time, he develops certain attitudes which are inconsistent with the kind of outlook required in other work situations. The practices differ from country to country but unrestricted lateral entry is provided in very few developing countries. In those sectors of government activity where a homogeneous nationwide employment market is in evidence, lateral entry at more points is provided. In Canada, a good deal of recruitment is above the entrance level, especially to certain categories, e.g., financial administration and personnel administration. In Australia, Section 47 of the Public Service Act 1902 allows for the appointment to a division other than the fourth division of any person who is not otherwise eligible, providing that the board certifies that "in its opinion, there is no officer available in the commonwealth service who is as capable of filling the position". A copy of every such recommendation is laid before both Houses of Parliament. Such

[24]Bruce Hackets, "*Higher Civil Servants in California,* Berkeley, 1967, p. 118. R. K. Kelsall, *Higher Civil Servants in Britain,* London, Routledge, 1955. T.B. Bottomore, *Higher Civil Servants in France, Transactions of the Second World Congress of Sociology,* Vol. II, 1954. V. Subramanian, *Social Background of India's Administrators,* Delhi, Publication Division, 1971, Ch. I. S.J. Tambiah, "Ethnic Representation in Ceylon's Higher Administrative Services, 1870-1946," *University of Ceylon Review,* XIII, 1955, pp. 113-134. J. Donald Kingsley, *Representative Bureaucracy,* Ohio, Antioch Press, 1944, p. 274. Akira Kubota, *Higher Civil Servants in Postwar Japan,* Princeton, Princeton University Press, 1969.

appointment is to a particular, and usually professional position, but once a person is recruited to the service, he may seek promotion to any vacant position regardless of its nature. Fulton Committee in United Kingdom recommended lateral entry programme and interchange of personnel between public administration and private administration. In the United States, three highest grades of both administrative and specialised positions have been thrown to really competent men. In India, Administrative Reforms Commission recommended that provision should be made for appointment to technical posts at the senior levels of persons of proved competence from universities and industrial and commercial concerns. Selection should be made by a committee presided over by the chairman of the Union Public Service Commission. There is very little provision for importing from outside the government persons having certain skills and expertise which may not be normally available in the service. Lateral type of entry to the senior levels of the civil service is normally not encouraged though various commissions have pleaded for it.[25]

Awareness of Manpower Planning

The problem of developing manpower needs projection related to development programmes has been receiving the attention of most of the developing countries. Within each ministry/department the personnel function is managed by departmental establishment offices and manpower planning cells. Usually the projections for needs are based on three major considerations: (a) usual attrition rate in a particular service or department, (b) provisions for deputation reserve, leave reserve, training reserve, etc., and (c) future needs based on development plans and programmes. In most of the countries, however, the recruitment pattern in some services indicates some lacuna in projection for manpower needs in terms of development plans and programmes. As a result of the increasingly direct state action and responsibility in socio-economic development, there has been great diversification in personnel needs of the public services. In many cases, this has not been duly reflected in

[25]*Report of the Administrative Reforms Commission on Personnel Administration*, New Delhi, 1969, Recommendation No. 17. *Report of the Committee on the Civil Service*, Fulton Committee, HMSO, 1966-68, Vol. 1.

manpower planning.[26]   In the absence of proper assessment of manpower needs, "recruitment followed rather than anticipated, the emergence of needs". In many countries serious effort has been made to link manpower planning with educational planning and *vice versa*. There is, however, scope for greater coordination and consultation between the personnel planning authorities and the educational and training institutions. Even in developed countries, it is difficult to predict the shape of economy 10 to 15 years in advance in view of the volatile social and economic forces and a dynamic labour market. It is more so in all the developing countries with their social tensions, constraint of resources and unstable economic conditions. The systematic exclusion of Africans from senior positions and the very slow process of education in colonial period have left Africa with severe shortages that will not be eliminated for a long time. Survey of African manpower needs and available resources to satisfy them leaves African states no alternative but to resort to external technical assistance. An examination of manpower requirements in many countries indicates that three basic considerations which can hardly be ignored are: (*a*) analysis of organisational structures and operations to determine what posts require men with growth and capabilities, (*b*) choosing the staff with potential for growth and training and securing the greatest return on investment in people through putting the right man in the right job; (*c*) analysis of future staffing requirements posed by planned anticipated development. The long and short range manpower planning by the administrative ministries is uniformally found to be deficient. Wherever attempts have been made to change the recruitment policies and procedures, there has been bureaucratic resistance. In Canada, the Public Service Commission has initiated a system known as the continuous 'staffing process' to speed up recruitment and selection. This involves making up inventories of some of the main occupational groups and of available candidates outside the service

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[26]*Canada Manpower Training Programme Continuing Follow Up*, *Survey Report on Training Outcomes*, Ottawa, Manpower and Immigration Deptt., 1975. Charles H. Levine, *et. al.*, "Organisational Design: A Post Minnowbrook Perspective for the 'New' Public Administration", *Public Administration Review*, *Manpower Policy and Programmes in Canada*, Paris, O.E.C.D., 1966, p. 56.

who are qualified for specific posts with them. In France, where the average age is high, irregularity in recruitment and the obligation to reinstate overseas personnel has driven it to an inverted pyramid with swollen number at the top and narrow base. Manpower planning under these conditions has of course been a hazardous, nevertheless challenging exercize.[27]

Bureaucratisation Vs. Professionalisation

Bureaucratisation is a process which stems from above and is created by those who control the organisation. Professionalisation takes root from below and those responsible for its creation are striving to get hold of the control of the organisation. The specialists, being fed up with working in an arm chair and the despotic system of hierarchy dominate, react by consolidating themselves from within, seeking power from their peer organisations from outside. Almost in every country there is some apprehension about specialists being too parochial. To Thompson, "the problem originates because modern bureaucracy attempts to accommodate specialisation within an hierarchical framework."[28] On the other hand, it is being said that in view of the increasing complexity and multifarious functions of present day administration, a general purpose service will have limited scope and utility as such. Fulton Committee in United Kingdom recommended a greater role for the specialists. The Administrative Reforms Commission recommended that the cadres in India should be enlarged to which all the services should contribute on the basis of equal opportunity, without assigning a privileged position to any particular service in respect of posts which

[27]Kenneth Younger, *The Public Service in New States: A Study in Some Trained Manpower Problems,* London, 1960, Paort III. George E. Berkley, *The Administrative Revolution: Notes on the Passing of Organization Man,* Prentice Hall, 1971. Eva Duka Ventura, "Bureaucracy and Political Development at Local Levels: Some Observations on Recent Innovations in the Philippines" in Manzoor Alam and G. Ram Reddy, *Socio-Economic Development: Problems in South and East India,* Bombay, Popular Prakashan, 1978, p. 263.

[28]Victor-A. Thomson, "Hierarchy, Specialisation and Organisational Conflict", *Administrative Science Quarterly,* March 1961, p. 486. Alvin Gouldner, *Patterns of Industrial Bureaucracy,* Glencoe, 1954, p. 226. G. Benviniste, *The Politics of Expertise,* London, Groom Helm, 1973, p. 120. S. Manzoor Alam and G. Ram Reddy, *Socio-Economic Development: Problems in South and South East Asia, op. cit.,* p. 258.

can be adequately filled by others after training or experience, if necessary. In France, the corps of civil administrators was established two decades ago and was supposed to become a corps of general administration, enjoying free mobility among the various ministries. Three-fourths of the secretarial posts upto those of directors was to be reserved for them. In practice, the 'grand corps' and other superior corps continue to occupy most of the higher posts and the corps of civil administration play a secondary role to the superior corps on the technical as well as non-technical sides of administration. In Australia, more than half of professional or technical departments have professional permanent heads. For example, only a doctor can be head of the department of health. In Africa also, there is a problem of relationship between generalists and professionals. Experience has shown that it was not only a matter of salary. In the long run this involved a change in social attitudes; society must give the same respect to its experienced professionals that it gave to generalist administrators. Of late, there is a gradual shift away from the concept of the amateur generalist towards establishing a professional identity among the generalists. The existence of technical and professional services alongside generalist services, and the position of technical and professional staff in relation to the generalist colleagues have created problems. In many countries, the generalist services, at least at managerial level, have usually carved out a superior position for themselves and enjoy the prestige of an 'elite' service. Normally it is the generalist who administers and filters the professional advice. This domination is resisted and assailed by those who favour scientific or technological content in administrative thinking.

Acceptability of Management Training

Almost in all countries training is a major instrument of civil service policy as well as a crucial element in plan implementation strategy. By and large it seems that an organised effort and deliberately designed programmes of systematic training for senior administrators have yet to be developed. In majority of the countries there is a major deficiency in the breadth and depth of the skills, knowlege and attitudes for the performance of management functions. A systematic study of the problems.

would show some common features in the identification of training needs. Broadly these needs are: (*a*) knowledge-based needs, (*b*) management and technical needs, and (*c*) psychological needs. Administration has to equip them with the basic concepts and knowledge of social and economic forces.[29] They have also to acquire a basic knowledge of the processes of economic development and financial management appropriate to their level of responsibility.[30] The psychological needs would determine the way in which the administrator sees his role within the government as also the manner in which he conducts his relationships with his colleagues. The basic characteristics of skills and qualities required of development oriented system have been indentified as: (*a*) grasping facts and figures, analysing information and forming judgements based on available information and personal insights, (*b*) synthesising basic elements of information and taking appropriate decisions of policy-making and implementation, (*c*) appreciating the significance and better use of technological and environmental changes in its totality, judging and forecasting the influence of such change on the bureaucratic system, (*d*) demonstrating creativeness in devising new strategies, tactics, methods, concepts and approaches to dynamic and efficient national development, (*e*) planning and coordinating multiple tasks into an interrelated system and providing leadership, (*f*) processing entrepreneurial skills to stimulate certain measures of experimentation and risk-taking in public activities for rapid change, improvement, etc. Arrangements for training differ from country to country. The

[29]Lynton K. Caldwell, *Improving the Public Service Through Training*, Washington, AID, 1962. Andre Molitor, *The University Teaching of Social Sciences*: *Public Administration*, Paris, UNESCO, 1959. Donald C. Stone (Ed.), *Education in Public Administration*: *A Symposium on Teaching Method and Materials*, Brussels, IIAS, 1963. Stephen B. Sweeney, *Education for Administrative Careers in Government Service*, Philadelphia, University of Pensylvania Press, 1958.

[30]Inayatullah (Ed), *Management Training for Development*: *The Asian Experience*, The Asian Centre for Development Administration, Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia, 1976. *Development of Administrators in Selected Countries*: Training Division, Monograph No. 13, Department of Personnel, New Delhi, 1972, p. 4. *Public Administration in the Second United National Development Decade—Report of the Second Meeting of Experts*, New York, U.N., 1971. M. Leifer, *Dilemmas of Statehood in Southeast Asia*, Singapore, Asia Pacific Press, 1972.

Canadians are anxious not to concentrate all training within the service. They have no civil service college but they would prefer to have an identifiable centre and be able to tell an 'integrated story'. The responsibility for implementing the training policy in many countries like Japan, Philippines, India, Pakistan, and Thailand is shared among the ministries or the agencies responsible for overall control and direction of personnel policies. The basic pattern for the development of administrators in Australia has been established as one of the self-development aided by formal training. The central personnel authority, with a view to equip the members of the departmental staff in Japan with a broad administrative vision, high level managerial abilities and a critical insight into social problems, is responsible for conducting training courses. In Japan, for the administrative training organised by IPA and NPA, about 153 hours out of a total of 420 hours are devoted to general and special lectures. Syndicate method is popular in Indonesia, Nepal, Pakistan, and the Republic of Korea. Some countries notably Bangladesh, India, Indonesia, Pakistan and the Philippines are also experimenting with diagnostic training methods. In the Republic of Korea, the unique system of informal training had been evolved. Rotations, transfers, meetings and conferences and these techniques have been largely effective in terms of input involved.

Reliance on Written Codes

In the countries with a longstanding administrative tradition, the development of personnel administration has generally given wide powers to ministries, agencies and civil service bodies. In the beginning, the administration was based more on a corpus of traditions or regulations which gradually become crystallised. Today, in most of the countries, personnel policies and practices are reduced to black and white in general statutory instructions and there is a trend towards a centralised civil service administration.[31] In almost every country there is a code which lays

[31]United Nations, *The Central Organs of the Civil Service in the Developing Countries*, New York, UN, 1969, p. 7. *Handbook of Civil Service Laws and Practices*, New York, UN, 1966. Girindro Pringgodigdo, "Bureaucracy, Power Centres and Recent Trends in Overall Development in Indonesia," in S. Manzoor Alam and G. Ram Reddy, *Socio-Economic Development in South : Problems in South and South East Asia, op. cit.,* Theme IV.

down the detailed procedure but in many countries there are separate sections dealing with public services in the constitution itself. In India, constitution prescribes the framework of the personnel system in several areas. In Japan, the constitution prescribes a few basic matters on the public service system but the detailed matters are regulated by the National Public Service Law and the National Personnel Authority Regulations. In Korea, the basic laws regulating the civil service are the National Civil Service Law of 1949 and the Educational Civil Service Law of 1953. In Philippines, the constitution defines broadly the scope of the civil service but the civil service law as embodied in the revised Administrative Code defines the details. In Thailand, the civil service is governed by the Civil Service Act of 1954. A noteworthy feature of the federal service in United States is the comparatively detailed legislation passed in its regard by the Congress. Legislation and not executive regulation determines the structure of the civil service. The Civil Service Act of 1883 and the Federal Salary Reform Act of 1962 has given the classification plan. In Federal Republic of Germany, civil service personnel have for a long time been subject to two different legal codes; civil service regulations which fall under the head of the public law and labour laws which apply to the employment contract and are generally controlled by a collective agreement. The Civil Service Act 1956 and the Civil Service Rules, 1956 provide for the constitution of a civil service in Iran. Besides in some countries there are healthy conventions which supplement the laws. Guarantees of civil service status do not take the form of comprehensive codification in United Kingdom and United States. In the former, the civil service is an establishment of the crown and its affairs are almost exclusively controlled by orders-in-council or other executive action. In the latter, the executive and legislative branches shall help in regulating the bureaucracy so that it has a partial statutory lease but there is no constitutional protection for the national civil service.

Deterioration of Standards

In large number of cases, the pay structures and the status of the service are normally not attractive enough to get people of extraordinary quality and over the years the quality of intake

has been going down which is a cause of serious concern to most of the countries. In Canada, the pressure for complete equity in competition procedures produced a complicated and very time consuming system of appeals against non-appointment. The principle that a post should be filled by the man best qualified for it has made it difficult for people to move to different fields of work, thus bringing down the standards. In United States, the turnover is so high that it is difficult to say whether the majority have not entered the service for a career. Recently special counsel has been set up in United States to receive any allegation of a prohibited personnel practice. In Korea, there is no strict legal basis to ensure merit principle and the examination for recruitment and promotion are based largely on general knowledge tested for particular ranks. In Philippines, unemployment and rapid population growth increased the pressures for government employment in violation of civil service laws. At times the spoils or patronage system in turn contributes to demoralisation of civil servants. In India, the rapid expansion and the enormous growth of personnel has diluted the efficiency whereas in Pakistan, Bangladesh, Iran and some African states, political instability has adversely affected the working of the civil service system. In advanced countries like the United Kingdom, Germany and Australia, the employees associations are not only vocal but have bargaining power which provides a type of shelter to those who are not devoted to work.

Enforcement of Discipline

Discipline ranks with recruitment and promotion as a very sensitive area in personnel administration. Certain lapses by civil servants amount to professional offences punishable under a perscribed code. Departmental codes and conduct rules specify offences in terms wider than would be acceptable in defining criminal liability leaving civil servants open to disci-

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[32]John Dunn (Ed.), *West African States: Failure and Promise*, New York, Cambridge University Press, 1978. William Tordoff, *The Government and Politics in Tanzania*, Nairobi, East African Publishing House, 1967, pp. 194-204. B.J. Dudley, *Instability and Political Order Politics and Crisis in Nigeria*, Ibadan, 1973. Giovanni Arrighi and John S. Saul, *Essays on the Political Economy of Africa*, New York, Monthly Review Press, 1973.

plinary action on very extensive grounds. What constitutes offence has varied interpretations. In Ghana, the Civil Service Act gives a very wide scope as offence is "any act done without reasonable excuse by a civil servant which amounts to a failure to perform, in a proper manner, any duty imposed upon him as such, or which contravenes any enactment relating to the civil service, or which is otherwise prejudicial to the efficient conduct of the civil service, or tends to bring the civil service into disrepute. . ."[33] Again in Pakistan, discipline and efficiency rules include penalty for government servants who are corrupt or may reasonably be considered corrupt, when they are in possession of resources for which they cannot reasonable account, or when they assume a style of living beyond their ostensible means. Similar are the provisions in Malaysia, but in United Kingdom, there is no self-contained code and the liability to departmental discipline for personal misconduct bringing discredit is not questioned. In Japan, Article 96 of the National Public Service Law lays down the discipline code. The punishments are also laid down either in statute or in subordinate legislation and always include censure or reprimand, stoppage of increments, reduction in rank or pay, removals. Some countries also permit the imposition of a fine. Ghana lists eight penalities but Tanzania does not list any. In Malaysia, conduct and discipline regulations make no mention of punishments but include dismissal as the major punishment. The initial investigation of complaints is usually hierarchical, starting with the immediate hierarchical superior who acts as a complainant and investigator. Several countries have made provisions for final stages of decision after appeals in the constitution itself. Malaysia, Pakistan and India provide constitutional safeguards against dismissal and in many countries the whole proceedings may go to the public service

[33]Hollis Chenery, *et. al.*, *Redistribution with Growth*, London, Oxford, 1975, p. 273. Essay of Jayawardena on Sri Lanka. David Apter, *Ghana in Transition*, New York, 1968. Benjamin Higgins, *Indonesia's Economic Stabilization and Development*, New York, Pacific Relations, 1957, Ch. II. Peter C.W. Gutkind and Immanuel Walleisteni (Ed.), *The Political Economy of Contemporary Africa*, London, Sage, 1976, Ch. V. H.W. Blair, "Rural Development Class Structure and Bureaucracy in Bangladesh," *World Development*, Vol. 6, No. 1, Jaunary, 1948.

commissions for advice. Where consultation with the commission is not provided, usually commissions are involved in connection with appeals. There is a lot of dissatisfaction regarding disciplinary methods and control. In almost all countries, the definition of what is punishable is wide and imprecise, procedure is over precise and over elaborate, with the result discipline becomes ineffective. The attitude of the staff and the departmental thinking normally is at variance. Such alienation is leading to strong organised associations and provision of collective bargaining.[34]

Swift Organisational Changes

To meet the changing requirements, various efforts have been made to search for suitable forms of organisations to meet different development needs. Some countries have experimented with negative hierarchy from bottom to top, adhocracy (temporary organisation) and polyarchy (organisation emphasising external cooperation) to supplement the traditional bureaucratic form of organisation. There has also been change in internal structures or processes, which comprise division of labour differentiation of roles, distribution of authority and internal communication, as well as the identification of individual objectives of the personnel with organisational objectives.[35] Increasingly, ad hoc types of projects and organisations have become a rather common form and even adhocracy is replacing bureaucracy. In view of the rapidity of change and its turbulent nature, more and more organisational designs are

[34]Refer James Black, *Positive Discipline*, New York, A.M.A. 1970. John Huberman, "Discipline without Punishment", *Harvard Business Review*, 1964. William G. Schott, *Public Administration Review*, Jan. 1969. For details Joseph Famularo (Ed.), *Handbook of Modern Personnel Administration*, New York, McGraw, 1972.

[35]Ralph H. Kilmann, Louis, R. Pondy, Dennis P. Slevin (Ed.), *The Management of Organisation Design: Research and Methodology*, New York, North Holland, 1976. *Report of a Mission, The Philippines: Priorities and Prospects for Development*, Washington, The World Bank, 1976, Ch. II. D.C. Cole and P.N. Lyman, *Korean Development: The Interplay of Politics and Economics*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1971. *Report of a Mission Nigeria: Options for Long term Development*, London, John Hopkins, 1974, Ch. XII. H. Feith and L. Castles (Ed.), *Indonesian Political Thinking*, 1945-65, Ithaca, Cornel University Press, 1970.

being undertaken leading to a setting up of a large number of temporary organisations. The growing size and complexity of the government machinery for economic development overcentralisation leads to inefficiency and poor performance. Due to location and other factors, decentralisation also becomes essential. In a highly competitive world and changing environment, no country can afford to ignore the direction of the wind. Some of the administrative systems of the countries which are still deficient may be forced to improve upon their performance, if they do not want to be forced out of existence. To meet a situation characterised by the turbulent change, both, system-wide reform in the macro-approach and the improvements at the micro level by improving the performance of individual organisations become necessary. Even a country with very limited resources can, if there is a will and a skill, wipe out poverty and build a healthy and equitable administrative system and a modern nation. The whole problem lies in identifying the problems, analysing them and finding out appropriate remedies. Swift organisational changes require appropriate policies and constant evaluation, full utilisation of modern technical and management technology and human resources, and an efficient implementing administrative machinery. If no proper preparations are made, the changes can prove disastrous.

Introduction of Modern Techniques

After the Second World War, due to advancement of science and technology, a new technological revolution is discernible based on computers and other electronic devices. It has increased production and led to monopoly competition. More and more reliance is being placed on scientific and rational methods as the basis for decision-making. There is an extensive use of quantitative, statistical or mathematical methods.[36] There is a greater awareness in all the countries of the necessity of equipping the civil servants with and adequate knowledge and ability to use a wide range of modern techniques of management for

[36] *Report of a Seminar and Papers*: *Administration of Management Improvement Services,* New York, U.N., 1971. *Administrative Aspects of Plan Implementation,* New York, UN. 1971. Marshall E. Dimock, *The Japanese Technocracy: Management and Government in Japan,* Tokyo, Walker, 1968, Ch. IX.

implementing national development plans and also to make most effective use of human and material resources for the attainment of desired national goals. In all countries whether developed or developing, under certain circumstances, some management techniques have already worked out better than others. It is, however, difficult to judge the real impact or contribution made by these methods partly because new methods are inevitably resisted by old-timers and there is technological faddism due to technical nature of the job. In the developing countries, there is greater preference for new techniques because of the 'leap-frog strategies' of accelerated development. Besides, the problem of the relevance of specific methods to specific level are on way to improve methods and techniques useful to match changing circumstances as contrasted with doctrinaire rigidity. A variety of programmes both at the technical and higher administrative levels have been formulated. There is no serious study yet made but it can be assumed that the introduction of new management methods in the highly industrialised or post-industrialising societies has been accompanied by the large scale kind of waste that only rich countries can afford.[37] Traditionally management improvement was related to planning, implementation and evaluation of various measures conducive to the increase of organisational effectiveness and efficiency of governmental organisations with special reference to developing countries. However, economic, social and technological developments have made continuous management improvement a necessity even in the developed countries.[38]

Salary Structure and Determination

The salary offered to civil servants is intended to attract and retain in the service men qualified for the tasks entrusted to them. The states are not unnecessarily generous and there are a number of checks exercised by legislative and other bodies.

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[37]Department of Economic and Social Affairs, *Appraising Administrative Capability for Development*, New York, UN, 1969, p. 29. *The Administration of Organization and Methods Services*, New York, United Nations, 1969.

[38]*Use of Modern Management Techniques in the Public Administration of Developing Countries*, New York, UN, 1971. *Administration of Development Programmes and Projects: Some Major Issues*, New York, UN, 1971.

In countries where the state has to compete with the private sector, freedom to fix pay is only marginal. In most of the advanced countries, the principle that remuneration in the public sector must be comparable with that in the private sector is well-accepted. However, in many countries there is a problem of competition with 'autonomous' bodies and thus different pay scales for different organisations for broadly comparable work exist. Because of the flexible personnel practices and the adminis-trative autonomy, the autonomous organisations are able to pay comparatively more. Inspite of many plans for reorganisation and classification, there is a plethora of pay scales creating a number of disparities and discriminations where different posts carry roughly the same level of responsibility. Pay structure in almost all countries is neither simple nor rational.[39] Basic salary scales for the service have been low in Iran leading to a bewildering variety of supplemental payments, and to pressures for special treatment. In many countries, the principle of fair comparsion with outside employment is followed as a matter of policy. Priestley Commission in the United Kingdom reaffirmed the broad principle to be followed in determining wage as the maintenance of a fair relativity between their wages and those outside, which was recently endorsed by the Fulton Committee. In USA, comparability between federal salaries and those paid by trade and industry for similar jobs have been laid down by statute. Fair comparison as such has not been adopted as a formal principle in France though prevailing market rates of remuneration do influence governmental salaries. West Germany, Nigeria, Kenya and Malaysia also do not follow this principle. In many countries, the central personnel agency has specific roles in determining the salary structures. In Japan, the monthly salary rate of an employee is decided by the applica-tion of one of the 16 salary schedules which are divided bet-ween eight job classifications. In Philippines, the Civil Service

[39]Kenneth O. Warner and J.J. Donovan, *Practical Guidelines to Public Pay Administration*, Chicago, Personnel Association, 1963. Herbert G. Zol-litseh and Adolph Langsner, *Wage and Salary Administration*, Cincinnati South Western, 1970. Arthur J. Deric (Ed.), *The Total Approach to Em-ployee Benefits*, New York, American Management Association, 1967. Re-portof the Pay and Services Commission, 1959-62, Karachi, Government of Pakistan Press, 1962.

Commission and the Wages and Position Classification Office both form constituent parts of the salary system, while in Australia, the Public Service Board is entrusted with the task of determining pay rates. In general, the principles which have been followed in regard to fixation of scales of pay have been (a) government should pay only as much as it is necessary to get the right type of recruits and retain them without loss of efficiency in service; (b) there should be equal pay for equal work in similar conditions of service; (c) the minimum remuneration of the lowest paid employee should be determined taking into consideration economic and social conditions obtaining in the state; (d) the basic salaries of government servants should be fixed with reference to the cost of living index at which prices are expected to stabilise taking care of any fluctuations of a temporary nature by payment of dearness allowances without disturbing the basic salaries, and lastly, it is necessary that principles of pay for civil servants should be right and seem to be right in theory and capable of application in practice. Almost in all cases, it is often seen that there is a serious imbalance in public pay system as a whole.[40] By and large rates at the lower end of the scale are comparatively higher than what they should be and are lower at the other end. It may be because most of the governments are by definition politically oriented trying to be popular with the majority of the population. A corrective need be applied to ensure that public pay scales are more realistically competitive than they are at present. Efforts should be made so that they should not remain overly competitive in the lower ranges and under-competitive in the higher. It is a common experience that allowances usually flourish in intervals between pay commissions, they are mowed down in its report and like needs they grow again in the atmosphere of inflation, lethargy and cheese-paring.

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[40]Thomas H. Pattern (Jr), *Pay : Employee Compensation and Incentive Plans*, New York, Free Press, 1977, Ch. XIV. Leonard R. Burgess, *Wage and Salary Administration in a Dynamic Economy*, New York, Harcourt. Milton L. Rock (Ed.), *Handbook of Wage and Salary Administration*, New York, McGraw, 1972. *Report of the Pay and Service Commission*; Bangladesh, 1977.

Staff Associations Encouraged

Effective and responsible civil service associations can make a substantial contribution to civil service integrity as protection provided by personal codes. No wonder, in countries where such associations do not exist, the state encourages their growth. There is no country in the world which completely denies civil servants the right to form associations. In many countries, there are legal requirements or obligations to consult their employees on conditions of service. In countries where there is competition with outside market, a need has been felt for a standing consultative machinery for adjusting conditions of service. In many countries staff associations register themselves as trade unions as it helps them to secure certain legal advantages in matters of ownership of property, management of funds and tax liability. In Japan, the employees may organise and join employee organisations to conduct negotiations with authorities. The Civil Service Act of Ghana provides that regulations be made to secure that so far as practicable and subject to such exceptions as the public interest may require—all civil servants are members of trade unions. In French law, there is a distinction between trade unions and other associations. The normal practice had been to encourage associations but forbid trade union activities. Again membership may not be restricted to civil servants alone as for instance Australian associations, unlike the British are not restricted to public servants, and there are some which draw members from both the public and private sectors.[41] In Bangladesh, there are two committees, Review Committee and Appeal Committee and membership of service associations is regulated by Government Servant Conduct Rues, 1979. In many countries, the associations are barely tolerated, their functions are limited and their status depressed. Again, recognition may depend on the fulfilment of

[41]Douglas Houghton, "Whitley Councils in the British Civil Service," Lecture delivered, Delhi, IIPA, 1957, p. 7. William G. Scott, *The Management of Conflict: Appeal Systems in Organisations*, Homewood, Irwin, 1965. William F. Glueck, *Personnel : A Diagnostic Approach*, London, Irwin, 1974. V. Bhaskara Rao, *Employer-Employee Relations: A Critical Study of Government of India and its Employees*, Delhi, Concept, 1978. V. Sarvaloganayagam, "Trade Unionism in Ceylon", *Ceylon Today*, VII, 1958, pp. 16-17.

conditions of membership and management. In a general way, the main objectives of these associations are usually to promote the professional interests and the improvement of working conditions of employees and other welfare activities. Whereas in advanced countries, the employees' associations are very vocal and publicity conscious, in developing countries very few of them publish newsletters, journals and other periodicals.

Interorganisational Relationships

The relationship of central personnel agencies and establishment offices with other departments and agencies such as operations and finance encompasses the complex problem of line and staff responsibilities. In many countries, there is division of functions and many agencies are involved with various aspects of personnel administration.[42] Also there is a close linkage of the central personnel agency with the office of the chief executive or the head of the administration. This is borne out by the fact that in Australia the Public Service Board reports to Parliament through the Prime Minister; in Philippines, the Service Commission forms part of the President's office; in Malaysia the Public Service Department is under the Prime Minister's Office; in Kenya, the Directorate of Personnel is a part of the President's office; and in Japan the National Personnel Agency reports through Cabinet Secretary and the Prime Minister to the Parliament. Striking the correct balance between what is to be directly controlled by the central personnel agency and what is to be left with the departments is not easy, and every country has to work its own solution. The countries which have been under the colonial rule are providing more and more specialist services to deal with both the quantitative and qualitative changes of administrative tasks.

Interaction with Political Environment

Political modernisation in developing countries implies that

[42] Joseph Famularo (Ed.), *A Handbook of Modern Personnel Administration*, New York, McGraw, 1972. John P. Campbell *et. al.*, *Managerial Behaviour Performance and Effectiveness*, New York, McGraw, 1970. Allen Janager, *Personnel Administration: Changing Scope and Organisation Studies in Personnel Policies*, New York, National Industrial Conference Board, 1966.

there should be meaningful people's participation in governmental decision-making. Public bureaucracy is an important instrument of political modernisation in developing countries and consequently as an institutional arrangement, has to bear the greatest strain of converting political and social demands into programmes and actions. Bureaucracy has also to continually adjust to competing political demands. In many countries like Iran, Pakistan and Indonesia, bureaucracy at times shares power with military. In countries where there are stable bureaucracies but unstable political systems, the administration has not been able to meet the growing challenge of modernisation and social change. The main problem in many developing countries remains: how to strike a balance between administration and politics because the hypertrophy of politics is as undesirable as the bureaucratic bulge. The ability and capability of administration to play its part in the development process is greatly influenced by the political environment. Administrative reforms also frequently occur in response to major political changes. The political context also influences the working of the internal system. In many countries of the group, policy formulation is accepted to be the role of political processes and its implementation the task of administration. The compulsion of situations and the political implications of policy alternatives and of discretion makes it difficult to the senior civil servant to maintain a purely neutral position. It has been observed that, "if he is to function effectively, a politically neutral senior administrator must be committed to the national goals of his society and be sensitive to its political processes."[43] At the higher levels, civil servants must have political sensitivity as well as technical skills. The political implications of techno-administrative decisions have to be weighed. The enlarged scope of the governmental activity and the decline of the Parliament have favoured growth in the political influence of top civil servants. The administrative centralisation in France, has increased the political role of the higher bureaucracy but in

[43]*Report of Interregional Seminar on the Development of Senior Administrators in the Public Services of Developing Countries*, p. 5. W. Rodney, *How Europe Underdeveloped Africa*, Dar-es-Salam, 1972. J.P. Mackintosh, *et. al. Nigerian Government and Politics*, London, 1966. *Report of a Mission Sent to Kenya on Kenya: Into the Second Decade*, London, John Hopkins, 1975.

general top grades can be highly politicised only when powerful and well organised political parties control the totality of the political system. In pluralistic democracies, political participation has been increasing since the adoption of universal suffrage. The presence of pressure groups and intergroups rivalries tend to preclude the possibility of top civil servants being highly politicized in a partisan sense, but the same conditions make them more aware of political inputs and outputs in decision-making processses. In Africa, it has become necessary for the public services to ensure that they are organised to provide one of the pressure groups in society for the promotion of a healthy climate for political, economic and social change necessary for development. In every country, the degree of political hegemony is inversely proportional to the degree of bureaucratic hegemony. Perhaps the single most important lesson to be learnt from the passage of the Civil Service Reform Act, 1978 in USA is that public policy is not created in a vacuum. It is influenced by more than it influences its environment. The working of the political systems, specially in the developing countries, has shown that in a struggle for power between public bureaucracy and political leadership, the former thrives, if the leadership authority is weak. Looking at Africa as a whole and some countries of Asia, the political revolution, that brought the leaders power, has failed to satisfy the economic and social needs of the people. This has led even to the overthrow in many cases of the elected governments by their armed forces and in others to the emergence of one-party states. In the new African states, the public service was subject to new pressures from party politics, tribal interests and often selfish ambitions. Most of these pressures were decisive, with damaging effects on the morale and efficiency of the civil service.[44]

[44]Mattei Dogan (Ed.), *The Mandarins of Western Europe: The Political Role of Top Civil Servants*, New York, Sage, 1975, Ch. VIII. Richard Symonds, *The British And Their Successors: A Study in the Development of the Government Services in the New States*, London, Faber and Faber, 1966, Ch. V. Lawrence Ziring, *The Ayub Khan Era: Politics in Pakistan 1958-1969*, Syracuse, Syracuse University Press, 1971, Ch. VI. H.M.A. Oniteri and A.A. Ayida, *Reconstruction and Development in Nigeria*, Ibadan, 1971. Jack Goody (Ed.), *Changing Social Structure in Ghana*, London, 1975. Parvez Hasan, *Korea: Problems and Issues in a Rapidly Growing Economy*, London, John Hopkins, 1976, Ch. III. Richard Harris (Ed.), *The Political Economy of Africa*, New York, John Wiley, 1975.

Temporary Civil Servants

It becomes necessary for all countries to employ temporary civil servants on the basis that such employees will be absorbed on a permanent basis. Recruitment procedures though centralised and regular, channels are bypassed and the control in the departmental hands is complete. More often that not there are complaints of departmental and ministerial patronage. Whatever the form and the necessity, this temporary selection is an area of weakness. In the United Kingdom, the policy is, that existing unestablished staff should be granted the benefit of establishment to the maximum degree and the associations follow it up. In most of the cases, there are innovations of equity/fairness and social justice when their services are about to be terminated. Political and social compulsions are involved too. In almost all the countries the first few years of independence set the pace and many times create problems. The managerial posts are manned by technically underequipped subordinates and professionally better equipped aspirants wait in the wings.[45] Such situations pose serious threat not only to administrative standards but to administrative stability. The basic attitude in France, as in Britain is to limit temporary staff. France has, on occasions accorded permanency to 'long term' temporary staff on terms other than following success in a competition, thus opening a sort of back door to permanent status. Several states have made efforts to control these tendencies though, on the whole, with more hesitancy than the thorough-going provisions. In Iran, the effort is to bring the whole civil service into control as far as possible in a single capacity through the provision of adequate permanent posts, and to limit employment outside the permanent cadre with the utmost rigidity.

Efforts at Administrative Reforms

In order that key institutions and agencies for the improvement of administrative system are devised, most developing countries carry out basic administrative reforms in order to orient their systems to the requirements of development. Case

[45]Lawrence Ziring and Robert LaPorte, "The Pakistan Bureaucracy", *Asian Survey*, Vol. XIV, 1974, pp. 1086-1103. Max Wortman (Ed.), *Creative Personnel Management*, Boston, Allyn and Bacon, 1967. Dale Yoder, *Personnel ond Inustrial Relations*, Englewood Cliff, Prentice Hall, 1970.

studies in Asia and Europe as well as from other regions of the world have shown that a strong fully entrenched cadre concentrated in a central managerial agency tends to mitigate against the very objective of the reform. In many cases, specially in relation to developing countries, the impetus for a reform often comes from the outside foreign experts or advisers. The political environment is no less important than the internal structure of the bureaucracy. The trend of the reform proposals shows that the support and sometimes even the initiative of the top political leadership of the country determines the ultimate outcome. In many countries, natural catastrophes and political crises such as wars and revolutions do provide impetus for reform. In Asian countries and elsewhere, the manifest objectives of reforms have often been efficiency, economy, effectiveness and political responsibility. Other related aspects had been, improved service, streamlined organisation and procedures, unified direction and some local crises. Unfortunately not many empirical studies are available which show whether or not the recommendations for administrative reforms are ideally conceived. For example, administrative reforms have always genuinely desired efficiency and competence but also would wish to absorb the government service unemployed persons. Both the situations are incompatible. There is hardly any country in the world which has not taken any steps in the direction of modernisation of administration.[46] The compulsions of population explosion, developmental requirements, technological changes, urbanisation, new economic and political order have led to sprouting of a number of new administrative agencies in all the developing countries. The old colonial models which once served as instruments of stability and continuity are under heavy challenge. Governmentwide reorganisations have not been uncommon either. The occupation of Japan, revolutions in Indonesia, Iran, War in Korea, *coup d'etat* in Pakistan, Thailand, etc., have triggered wholesale political and administrative changes. In countries where political growth is lagging behind

[46]Hahn-Been Lee and A.G. Samonte, *Administrative Reforms in Asia*, Manila, EROPA, 1970, Ch. I. "Developmentalist Time and Leadership in Developing Countries", *CAG Occasional Paper* 1965 and Clarenic Thurbeo, *"Islands of Development: A Political and Social Approach to Development Administration*, LA DAC Paper, 1967.

socio-economic development, the quality and efficiency of administration has suffered too. In African states, the proposals for structural reform have focused on the need for greater flexibility; a change in the rigid class structure, greater interchange of senior staff between the civil service and other occupations, the new structures to support a decentralised system of administration.

Role of Advisory Bodies

In all countries there is a central guidance cluster of organisational units responsible for the making of major development policies, planning, evaluation, etc. Ministry of Finance is always one of the leading ministries but in many developing countries, policy making at higher levels is without the assistance of some kind of high level advisory group, comprising people with analytical capacity and with extensive administrative experience. There is no unit for collection and processing of essential information necessary for the making and implementing of important policies.[47] Estimates by experts on feasibility, probability and possibility are often only poorly informed guesswork, in part due to lack of sufficient or decisive evidence and also to a high degree of uncertainty. In the central policy cluster which is different from central personnel agency, some special arrangements are desirable for ensuring that appropriate administrative machinery is established for policy formulation and implementation, reporting, feedback and evaluation, adjustment and revision of policies, plans and programmes. In almost all countries, there is one or more government agency which functions in advisory capacity to government training programme. There is the National Personnel Council in Japan, the Institute of Public Administration in Indonesia, the University of Philippines and the Budget Commission in Philippines, the Advisory Board for Inservice Training in Thailand. In Canada, the Treasury Board performs the role of advisory body and the policy is to delegate as much training as possible on the principle that training should be close to where the action is. In the

[47]Refer Meleville Dalton, "Changing Staff-Line Relationships", *Personnel Administration*, March 1966, pp. 40-49. R.C. Sampson, *The Staff Role in Management*, New York, 1955. S.R. Maheshwari, *Government Through Consultation*, New Delhi, IIPA, 1972.

United States and Britain, Iran, Nepal, Thailand, Malaysia, and Kenya, many programmes are run by outside agencies on behalf of the government.

Setting up of Institutes of Research and Training

After the Second World War, schools and institutes of public administration began to appear in many countries in great variety. In the early fiftees, this movement gained momentum and in another five years they were found in all the principal regions dealing with affiliation, organisation, course contents and programmes. In many cases, they have become leading exponents of administrative reforms and an important factor in training for the public service. The content analysis of the annual reports or information brochures shows that their major activities are teaching, consultancy, training, publications, extension service, professional advancement, etc.[48] There are special functions or activities assigned to them like participation in the selection process, arranging of conferences and seminars, promotion of good relations between the government and the academic and other bodies. In France, by law or decree, persons appointed to the highest administrative class are required to be graduates of the National School of Administration. There is a broad consensus that governments are looking to the schools and institutes to provide improvement, which are the high priority in national development. In most of the developing countries, some special arrangements are being made to create forums for exchange of experience and for conducting research.[49]

[48]Sir John Fletcher Cooke, "Institute of Public Administration: Some Major Problems", Institutes of PublicAdministration in the Commonwealth: The Report of a Conference of Director 1963, London, RIPA, 1963, p. 10. German Foundation for Developing Countries, *Report of an International Conference 1964*, p. 8. Joseph R. Starr, *Schools and Institutes of Public Administration: A Comparative Study*, Knowxvile, University of Tennesse, 1960.

[49]J. Donald Kingsley, *Staffing, Organisational and Training Problems in the Public Service of the Western Region (of Nigeria)*, Ibadan, 1958. United Kingdom of Great Britain and Northern Ireland, *Reorganisation of the Central Government*, London, 1970. Japanese National Personnel Authority, "Employee Training and Education in the Japanese Government", *Annual Report*, 1953.

Increasing International Cooperation

International cooperation has been a source of ideas and inspiration for almost all the developing countries. Through the United Nations and other international agencies, it has been possible for the experts in public administration to attend conferences overseas enabling them to discuss and exchange views on administrative innovations. This cross fertilisation has been usefull in cultivating current thinking in other areas of the world which can usefully be adopted at home to make the administrative system an effective instrument for rapid social and economic development. Most of the countries have also taken useful clues from United Nations reviews, bulletins and journals produced by various international organisations. Financial assistance has also been liberally flowing in some developing countries. Management consultancy services and training to administrators have become a source for providing funds and experts for helping setting up management services·and operational units. Consultants from developed countries like USA, Canada, Federal Republic of Germany, Japan have undertaken studies in various sectors of the economy of developing countries including agriculture, rural development, communication, etc. There is a continuous effort to ensure that rationalisation in the structure or policies is affected, and that standards proposed are in no way in conflict but consistent with and relevant to local requirements. This requirement has generally been looked to in United Nations capacity studies. The principal role in the area of international cooperation will be to learn from the experience of other countries and the development of comparative models. In view of the peculiar problems of administration in developing countries, a useful area may be the establishment of an exchange programme, for staff interchanges between scholars in different countries. In addition to collaborations with specialised agencies, cooperative relations have developed among many institutes and schools of public administration. International Institute of Administrative Sciences, International Union of Local Authorities, the International Centre for Local Credit, the International Organisation for Supreme Audit Institutions, International Professional bodies have been very useful. There has been increasing awareness to

develop bilateral programmes and regional coordination.[50]

The success of the plan formulation and implementation, effectiveness and efficiency of governmental operations, achievement of targets and organisational goals depend upon the functional efficiency of the administrative and technical personnel at all levels. The top level administrators, however, should be able to relate the accelerating rate of technological change to present and projected programmes. They ought to be aware of economic and social forces which have an impact on governmental business. The expanding economic activities demand that not only civil servants in general be fully equipped and trained for the stupendous tasks but also that such training, orientation and motivation should permeate specially the higher echelons. Such orientation is being provided in almost all countries to equip them to undertake the more complex tasks and to create the necessary environment. It is also to be ensured that better tools and techniques are used at all levels to improve performance and productivity. Of late, every government is looking more closely at the basic day-to-day problems in promoting the growth and development of individuals in an orderly and systematic manner as no organisation is stronger than the top brass to direct its activities. These are the officers who are the prized asset on whom rests the responsibility for continual successful operations as well as future growth of personnel administration. Lack of planning for continual availability of such persons may prove fatal in emergent situations. Such is the cause and concern of central personnel agencies in all the countries included in this study.

[50]United Kingdom, Department of Technical Cooperation, *Report of the Committee on Training in Public Administration for Overseas Countries,* London, HMSO, 1963. Sam Richardson, "Training Problems in Northern Nigeria," *Education in Public Administration,* 1963, pp. 61-63. Anwer Syed, "The Teaching of Public Administration in Pakistan", *Philippine Journal of Public Administration,* Vol. II, No. 2, 1958, pp. 109-114. G.S. Birkhead (Ed.), *Administrative Problems in Pakistan,* Syracuse, Syracuse University Press, 1966.

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Maximizing Personnel Potential

Discussion in the preceding pages, in brief, tends to reinforce the argument that for a well-planned and concerted personnel planning and implementing system, the central personnel agency has to be given a definite, positive and meaningful role especially in view of the expanding functions under which they have to operate. Relating these experiences to the prevailing administrative situation in developed and developing countries, there appears to be a greater necessity to delineate and clarify the respective roles of the personnel department, the cadre managing departments and the public service commission. Time has come when some of the basic assumptions and beliefs, on which the personnel systems and policies are predicted, are given another look. A survey into the public bureaucracies in a wide variety of existing political systems brings out a number of similarities and diversities among them and about the relationship between the type of political system and the role of administration as shown by bureaucratic and organisational behaviour. With very few exceptions, there is a general agreement transcending differences in political ideology that bureaucracy should be basically instrumental in its operation, that it should serve as an agent and not as a master. The political role of bureaucracy has been a matter of continuing interest in developed countries and has emerged as one of the principal issues in developing countries. However, the importance of a competent bureaucracy in a developed as well as developing political system is not in dispute. Development, even more than maintenance of continuity and order, has become the chief concern and the

business of the administrative apparatus.[1] Today, the general administrator has to acquire a greater appreciation and understanding of economic and technological forces. If the central personnel agency can play such a role, it would undoubtedly be an ideal nodal agency poised for a real breakthrough in positive and constructive personnel management.

In many countries, an ethos is emerging due to the fusion of the developing political situations and the socio-economic pressures generated by the processes of development and growth and the continuously changing administrative practices. We cannot pretend that reform in administrative patterns has been satisfying as the number of regimes which have fallen for reasons linked with administrative weaknesses is not small.[2] Of late, the chorus of complaint has been becoming louder. Alternatives in development become important when rising dissatisfaction, diminishing quality of life start threatening the social system. Recent critiques of development models have exposed that single dimensional development is not appropriate for all societies at all times, nor beneficial to all sections of the people in any society. This phenomenon cannot be restricted to the third world alone.[3] Experiences of countries both in the first and the second world bear equal evidence of dissatisfaction. A crucial component of the existing models is provided by a certain structure of international relations, global distribution of resources and controlled mechanism. The movement from tradition to modernity was also marked by increased flow of capital, technology and skills, therefore, there was a considerable stress on enhancing the capacity of administration to manage development and on building institutions that helped in

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[1]James A. Medeiros and David E. Schmidt, *Public Bureaucracy: Values and Perspectixes*, North Scituate, Duxbury Press, 1977. Alfred Diamant, *Bureaucracy in Developmental Movement Regimes: A Bureaucratic Model for Developing Societies*, Bloomington, CAG, 1964.

[2]O Glenn Stahl, *A Strong Civil Service for Nepal: A Charter for Merit, Incentive, Control and Simplicity*, Kathmandu, The Ford Foundation, 1969.

[3]Frank H. Golay, *et. al. Underdevelopment and Economic Nationalism in Southeast Asia*, Ithaca, Cornell University Press. 1969, Ch. V. Clyde Chantler, *The Ghana Story*, London, Linden Press, 1971.

diffusing borrowed technology with marginal adaptations.[4] In the midst of contradictory demands, the challenge and the awesome task is to find ways to mediate between various demands, to represent the overall interest of the organisation, to build personnel policies and to make the decisions that are necessary for the survival of organisations themselves. Drastic measures are necessary to check proliferation of personnel not only from the point of view of avoiding waste but also of quality.[5] The requirements of the job must be a paramount consideration after carefully spelling out of the job content in terms of duties and experiences. The system should be capable of enabling the best man to be selected, not only from amongst the formalised services or cadres but also from outside government. For example, the most important aspect of the service structure that is being envisaged in Bangladesh is the open structure system relating to administrative posts at the secretariat level. A *Senior Policy Pool* is to be constituted in which members of all functional services will have the option and opportunity to enter. The entry point will be at the level of deputy secretary through a competitive test. Eligibility to compete will be a certain length of service in the functional area. Most of the central personnel agencies wherever they exist are still engaged mainly in control rather than service functions. Where the treasury is performing personnel functions, the impact has been patchy rather than systematic, with too few staff and too little expertise. There has to be a definite move away from the merely regulatory aspects of personnel administration to positive measures for maximising personnel efficacy.[6]

[4]Iain Maragham, *The Politics of Organisational Change*, Associated, London, 1929, pp. 189-216. Thinapain Nakata, *Bureaucratic Corruption in Thailand: Incongruities between Legal Codes and Social Norms*, Bangkok, Monograph No. 26, School of Public Administration, 1977. A.M.A. Rahim (Ed.), *Bangladesh Economy: Problems and Issues*, University Press, Dacca, 1977, Ch. V. Arnold J. Heidenheimer (Ed.), *Political Corruption: Readings in Comparative Analysis*, New York, Holt, 1970, pp. 4-6.

[5]Ferrel Heady, *Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective*, New York, Marcel Dekker, 1969. Frank Marini (Ed.), *Toward a New Public Administration: The Mannowbrook Perspective*, Scranton, Chandler Publishing Co. 1971.

[6]Kenneth J. Rothwell (Ed.), *Administrative Issues in Developing Economies*, Lexington, Heath, 1972. A. Adedeji, *The Public Service in a Developing Country*, University of Ife, Seminar on Public Administration, 1964.

The developmental challenges of the recent decades have highlighted the inadequacy or rather superficial and artificial separation of recruiting authorities and other agencies dealing with establishment functions. In particular, training, staff development and recruitment policy should be the responsibility of the appointing authority. Fulton Committee categorically stated: "We regard recruitment, training and subsequent career development as part of a single process ... we believe accordingly that recruitment should be in the hands of those who share a direct responsibility for the individual's training, deployment and development." Administrative Reforms Commission in its Report on the Machinery of the Government of India and its Procedure of Work, pointed out in somewhat the same fashion that the fashioning of an effective central personnel agency and the allocation to it of all functions of an overall character in the field of personnel administration is one of the most important reforms required in the machinery of the government.[7] The target in the coming decades is to increase productivity of the public service through efforts to provide new dimensions in the management of human resources and introduction of improved management techniques necessary for growth and development. The proposed intensive programmes of improving management techniques and practices will help the service to upgrade the level of consultancy services. The present study indicates that in developing countries, there is greater movement towards unifying various personnel functions. In the context of Africa, for example, it has been mentioned that it be beneficial for a commission to retain rather limited functions. The underlying fear while setting up new agencies is whether public confidence could be secured by a system which would appear to be operating under greater influence of the executive. The political forces being very powerful, it may not be possible for the executive to secure the independence and integrity of such agencies. In most of the African countries, there is too much emphasis on localisation of services which cuts at the root of merit principle. Such traditions of the colonial service as integrity, impartiality, efficiency of service, loyalty to

[7] *Reports of the Administrative Reforms Commission*, Government of India, 1967-1969.

the government of the day and devotion to duty are no doubt worth preserving. How to preserve these in the face of challenges and odds is the greatest problem.[8] With so many disintegrative forces at work, it is not possible to deal with policy matters without drawing into the politicial arena. It is also mentioned that instead of concentrating functions at one level, the control of civil service should be shared in varying proportions by the appointing authority, the politicians who broadly determine recruitment and pay policies, and the civil service personnel managers.[9] All these suggestions are no doubt based on experience and expediency but whether they stand the scrutiny of modern thinking on coordination and progressive personnel policies is doubtful.

The foregoing account of the personnel systems of many countries shows that efforts are being made to make their personnel systems more task-oriented, more professional and more egalitarian in the manning of the higher administrative positions so as to utilise and develop the talent in the best possible manner. They have also started laying comparatively more emphasis on training not only to enhance subject matter competence but also general managerial attributes and capabilities without which effective administration is impossible. Administrative leadership today demands much more than ordinary human qualities and masterly skills in the application of techniques and an extraordinary insight into human nature and psychology.[10] The search for such administrative leadership will have to range very wide and embrace the whole civil service so that the higher administrative positions could be staffed with

[8]S.O. Adebo, "Public Administration in Newly Independent Countries" in Burton A. Baker, (Ed.), *Public Administration: A Key to Development*, Washington, Department of Agriculture, 1964. Gerald D. Nash, *Perspectives on Administration: The Vistas of History*, Berkeley, Institute of Government Studies, 1969.

[9]*Report of the Africanization Commission (*Udoji Report*)*, East African Common Services Organization, Nairobi, 1963. *Report of the Commission on the Public Services of the East African Territories and the East African High Commission* (Flemming Report), Entebbe, 1960. Final Report of Standing Committee on Recruitment, Training and Promotion of Africans (Wild Report), Uganda Government, Entebbe, 1955.

[10]George A. Steiner and John B. Miner, *Management Policy and Strategy*, New York, MacMillan, 1977, pp. 41-56.

varied talent and experience. It is a matter of judgement whether the existing practices of personnel administration and the structural peculiarities of cadres help or hinder the flow of such quality and calibre to higher administrative positions but the main approach is to attract the best man for the higher positions by casting the net wide irrespective of where he might be working or serving.[11] In most of the countries, there is either an academy or a college to organise foundational training for the probationers belonging to higher civil services. Such central organisations responsible for training are set up due to the need for a common course of basic training and for ensuring common outlook and appreciation of the mutuality of roles by probationers as an integral part of the public service. It is also vital for senior civil servants to get together to exchange notes and to keep abreast of the latest thinking on the various problems facing the administration. The academy or college is developed not merely as a centre for training officers of administrative service but also as a centre of studies in public administratian in general. The role of such academies has been reviewed from time to time. Fulton Committee has recommended that a Civil Service College (almost a counterpart of the Academy) should be set up which should provide major training courses in administration and management. These should include, courses for specialists, post entry training for graduates, additional courses in management for top management, refresher courses in the latest management techniques, etc.[12] The college should also provide a wide range of shorter training courses for a much larger body of staff. While discussing the significance of the All India Services, the Administrative Reforms Commission recommended that the pattern of training of probationers should be reviewed so that it serves basic professional needs. It further recommended that in addition to the various refresher courses, there should be specialised

[11]Lee Siegelman, "Do Modern Bureaucracies Dominate Underdeveloped Politics? A Test of the Imbalance Thesis", *American Political Science Review*, Vol. 66, No. 2, 1972, pp. 525-28, and "Bureaucratic Development and Dominance: A New Test of the Imbalance Thesis", *Western Political Quarterly*, No. 27, 1974, pp. 308-13.

[12]*The Civil Service : Report of the Committee 1966-68*, (Chairman: Lord Fulton), Vol. I. Recommendation No. 100.

training in particular specialisations for which the officers are earmarked. While discussing the goals and tasks of the National Academy of Administration, Mussoorie (India), Shri T.N. Chaturvedi felt that in a generic sense, "the fundamental aim of the Academy is to provide a public service, adequately equipped and properly attuned to the changing tasks of the government in a developing democracy. This is a continuing function. The preparation has to be for coping with public issues and policy measures as well as functional programmes or managerial and implementation tasks in a democratic set up. The Academy has to strive for continuing excellence and renewal of resources of public service, apart from building the sound foundation at entry stage. The Academy should not be satisfied with initial tasks, but should try to mould and project consistently the proper image of public service."[13] For the achievement of these basic objectives, suitable instruments and supporting structures, both human and material have to be devised. There is greater need for thinking in depth about the techniques and methods of training and curricula. The institution should have an evaluation wing for assessment, appraisal and follow up and develop adequate professional links with organisations and institutions of regional as well as international nature for creative interaction and as an opportunity for staff development.

The management component of training has increased lately and training institutions are supposed to help in introducing incremental changes in the level of knowledge of the trainees to raise the performance of the organisation and in imparting knowledge, instilling skills and developing attitudes which support or foster the adoption of new approaches. In addition, Inayatullah identifies three types of roles for training institutions: (a) the pattern maintenance or conformist role of preparing the civil servants for efficiently performing their work to keep the administrative system working; (b) the innovative role which enhances the learning capacity of the civil servants to enable them to continuously re-equip themselves for changes in

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[13]Shri T.N. Chaturvedi prepared a detailed report on the *Role and Organisational Pattern of the National Academy of Administration. Some Ideas and Issues* in 1969 while he was Joint Director at the National Academy of Administration, Mussoories. 200 Page cyclostyled Report discusses at length various organisational and other related issues,

their role as well as to effect changes in the administrative system; (c) the proactive role of anticipating problems in the field of training and evolving their solution. The training institutions can perform these roles in an instrumental context, that is, by accepting the definition of problems and their solutions evolved or prescribed by others or in an autonomous context, that is, by identifying training needs on the basis of their own diagnosis of the inadequacies of the administrative system.[14] To be innovative, the training academy should have a high learning capability, institutionalised in the form of scientific research, and a critical—analytical orientation coupled with an adequate functional autonomy.

Central personnel agencies are faced with a number of environmental challenges that are not only vast but contradictory also. The employees want improved quality of work life and the employer cost-effectiveness. Thanks to the expansion of advanced market societies, all people of the globe are today captured by one single economic system.[15] U.N. Declaration on the Establishment of a New International Economic Order says. "We the Members of the United Nations. . . solemnly proclaim our united determination to work urgently for the establishment of a New International Economic Order based on equality, sovereignty, interdependence, common interest and cooperation. Between now and the end of the century, the actual number of people in the world will still increase from just over 4 billion to just over 6 billion. Ninety per cent of the extra 2 billion people will be born in the economically poor countries of the world. All over the world the move to the cities is gaining pace. In developed countries, half the population lived in urban areas in 1950, by the end of the century

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[14]Inayatullah (Ed.), *Management Training for Development: The Asian Experience*, Malaysia, ACDA, 1976, p. 4. *Report of the Committee on the Training of Civil Servants*, Assheton Committee, HMSO, 1944.

[15]George Tapinos, Phyllis T. Piotrow, *Six Billion People*, MacGraw Hill, New York, 1978, pp. 155-61. Alex Inkeles and David H. Smith, *Becoming Modern: Individual Change in Six Developing Countries*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1974.

three-quarters are expected to do so.[16] It does not require much effort to carve out a new department or agency but staffing it properly requires a major effort.[17]

OBJECTIVES

The setting up of such an agency wherever undertaken should be preceded by a very careful design of its structure and objectives and defining the precise skills required at various levels. The structure that it inherits should be carefully pruned and there should be no hurry in expanding the activities of functions. The new responsibilities should grow slowly after due experimentation.[18] The success of the nodal agency, in the ultimate analysis, would depend on the nature of extent of the counterpart reform, *i.e.*, establishing expertly staffed and professionalised personnel office in the various ministries. In essence, the role of central personnel agencies is to provide staff assistance to various management levels. The broad objectives of setting up such an agency are to :

(*a*) provide an integrated perspective of the different segments of administration and their underlying practices and policies;

(*b*) develop inter-personnel skills and an understanding of the modern techniques to aid decision-making such as O & M, work study, information processing, PERT, etc., as are appropriate in planning and implementing schemes of administrative reforms;

(*c*) formulate overall personnel policies and provide

[16]William J. Siffin, "Two Decades of Public Administration in Developing Countries", *Public Administration Review*, 36, 1976, p. 61. Dennis Austin, *Ghana Observed*, Manchester: Manchester University Press, 1976. E.O. Stene and Associates, *Public Administration in Philippines*, Manila, 1956. T.H. Silcock (Ed.), *Thailand Social and Economic Studies in Development*, Durham, Duke University Press, 1967.

[17]Daya Krishna, *Political Development: A Critical Perspective*, Delhi, Oxford University Press, 1979, pp. 179-208.

[18]*Organizing Schools and Institutes of Public Administration*, Handbook on Planning, Improving and Managing Centres of Education, Research and Advisory Services in Public and Development Administration, Graduate School of Public and International Affairs, University of Pittsburg, 1968.

guidance and leadership to the departmental personnel agencies;

(*d*) generate administrative capabilities to formulate appropriate solutions to meet the emerging organisational needs and environmental pressures;

(*e*) undertake and promote research in personnel administration, searching for talent and assessing manpower needs;

(*f*) oversee generally the implementation of the policies and regulations formulated by the departments through a system of inspections and reporting;

(*g*) determine manpower requirements both in quality and quantity and to specify in consultation with the departments the essential requirements for recuitment;

(*h*) promote career development throughout the service and determine training policy;

(*i*) determine pay, pensions and other conditions of service and to look into promotion policy; and

(*j*) advise on matters in the field specially placed before it for consideration.

ILLUSTRATIVE FUNCTIONS

Regarding the scope of its functions, no specific list can be drawn and much would depend upon the nature of the political and administrative system. In every country, depending upon the local situation, an itemised examination of the various personnel functions has to be taken up with a view to determine which of these could be profitably delegated. Conceptually it has to concern itself only with the formulation of policies and working out policy statements and suggestions designed to guide the departments. The following items, however, deserve central attention and could be entrusted to central personnel agencies:

(*a*) Formulation of personnel policies and inspection and review of their implementation, talent hunting, processing of appointments to senior posts, proper recruitment and placement, promotional polices;

(*b*) Promotion, coordination and facilitation of training,

training and monitoring their implementation, advising ministries and departments on instructional techniques evaluating training programmes including those of training coordinators;

(c) Job evaluation, position classification, cadre and career management, developing personnel organisations, manpower planning, participative managemment;

(d) Formulation of norms for discipline and welfare of staff and machinery of redressal of their grievances, preparation of service rules and regulations, public service ethics, etc.;

(e) Determination of salaries and fringe benefits, conditions of service; and

(f) Initiation of research in administration and other developmental aspects like standardisation of procedures, developing guidelines and stimulating personnel policies through performance reporting, monitoring and evaluation.

LOCATION

Location of central personnel agency is another matter which also has to be worked out. Among the various location alternatives available are that the agency can be: (a) under the direct charge of the chief executive, (b) as an independent department of the ministry, (c) as part of the Ministry of Interior or Home Affairs. Those who favour Prime Minister to be the incharge of this department are of the view that no other minister can assert the needs of the government service as a whole over the sectional needs of powerful departmental ministries. Though Prime Minister would hardly have enough time, but he could delegate day to day responsibility to a non-departmental minister of appropriate seniority. As recommended by the Fulton Committee, the effort should be made that the central personnel agency is not overshadowed by major policy departments. In United Kingdom, the Prime Minister, under both Labour and Conservative administration has also been Minister for the Civil Service, and that day-to-day management of the department has been given to a Cabinet Minister without other departmental responsibilities—Lord Peart. Lord

Peart is Lord Privy Seal and also leader of the House of Lords. Importance of the department is further enhanced by the fact that the permanent secretary is also the Head of the Home Civil Service. Normally in the developing countries the third alternative may work better because it would command prestige which goes with that ministry. Prime Minister has so many other functions to perform that there may not be enough time with him for proper guidance and direction. The size, however, should be kept as small as possible. Existing units which are working at different places and in different departments can easily be transferred to the new agency. There should, however, be a caution in allowing any mergers, etc. In the light of the requirements, the structures and the personnel can be pruned and only selective arrangements made. It may be useful, for example in African states if some models can be designed which can be the basis of action in other areas. A few experiments successfully conducted in appropriate locations can have a widespread multiplier effect.[19]

ORGANISATIONAL SET-UP

Details will also have to be worked out about the internal organisation of the central personnel agency because the main method of work will be research oriented rather than office oriented, not only in the development wing but also at the policy formulation stage. The different wings should be presided over by senior officers who should be chosen carefully after an assessment of their capacities both in the realm of ideas and action. They should have capacity for innovation and a passion to get their ideas implemented. (Refer to proposed Organisation Chart, p. 149).

The central personnel agency could have a number of wings. There will be the necessity for a Policy Wing to deal with formulation of overall personnel policies and to review and evaluate the working of the public service commissions. A

[19]Renate Mayntz, F. W. Scharpf, *Policy Making in the German Federal Bureaucracy*, Amstredam:, Elsevice, 1975. Richard W. Gable, "Culture and Administration in Iran," *Middle East Journal*, Vol. XIII, No. 4 (1959), pp. 407-21. George L. Grassmuck, *Policy Bureaucracy and Interest Groups in the Near East and North Africa*, Bloomington, C.A.G. Papers, 1965.

PROPOSED ORGANISATIONAL CHART FOR CENTRAL PERSONNEL AGENCIES

Prime Minister or Head of the Government

Ministry of Home or Interior

Public Service Commissions

Central Personnel Agency or Department

Establishment
- Director of Statistics and Research
- Supporting Staff

Administrative Methods
- Deputy Secretary
  - Management Services
  - Administrative Reforms
  - Manpower

Pay and Cadre Management
- Deputy Secretary (Salaries)
- Deputy Secretary (Structure Review)

Personnel and Policy Records
- Advisor on Personnel Management
- Deputy Secretary (Terms of Service)
- Under Secretary (Medical)

Secretary (Training and Research)
- Director of Training
- Director of Research
- Director of Civil Service College or Academy

career systems wing could look after key appointments at the higher levels. A development wing can plan personnel programmes, organise and promote training and executive development programmes and promote research. A suitable system of job grading and classification to facilitate specialisation will also have to be provided. A House Keeping Wing should also be there to care for routine type of duties and responsible for the implementation of personnel policies and regulations. Pay research units have been working within a very limited area but it could work as a central clearing house of information, coordination and evaluation of the data. To look at pay policies without detailed knowledge of cadre management and development is fraught with serious implications. The different aspects of cadre management are looked after by a central personnel agency, therefore, there can be a separate section on pay and cadre management whose function should be: (a) cadre reviews, (b) job evaluation, (c) pay revision, (d) creation of new scales not provided in the pay structure, etc. This section could work under the overall control or as a part of central personnel agency. The Research Wing, can concentrate on how to: (a) provide a systematic analysis of management or administrative problems to policy makers indicating the choices available, (b) lay special emphasis on reorganisation of structures to suit developmental objectives, (c) build teaching and training material to keep better understanding of management concepts and techniques, (d) provide a systematic analysis of the economic, social, political and technological environmental variables, (e) identify problems, hold seminars and workshops to discuss policy problems, (f) publish research studies, journals and other relevant material, (g) help in implementing administrative reforms.

In many countries, the functions of the nodal agency are divided into divisions, which are further sub-divided into sections. In Australia, there are five divisions, viz.: (1) *Departmental Structures Division* examines proposals concerning the nature and level of staffing resources available to departments advises the Board on machinery of government matters: advises the forward staffing estimates and staff ceilings: develops and implements policies, programmes and techniques for identification and review of employment groups; carries

out developmental work on staff and establishment control, classification structures, position analysis, designations and divisional status: acts as a general focal point for departments where management matters require contact with the Board's Central Office: maintains a channel of communication for advice to and facilitates contacts with other parts of the Board's Office on matters relating to departmental operations: advises and assists departments on workload, establishment, classification and organisation matters. (2) *Management Systems and Efficiency Division* develops and implements policies aimed at achieving the most economical and efficient use of resources in the service including policy in relation to joint management reviews, staff utilisation reviews and the engagement of consultants; develops and implements policies and procedures aimed at the most effective use of Automatic Data Processing (ADP) and related data communications in the service in association with the Interdepartmental Committee on ADP: develops and implements programmes of training in management systems and ADP techniques: fosters, coordinates and appropriate initiates developments in office mechanisation. (3) *Pay and Conditions Division* develops and implements policies and advises and makes recommendations on pay and other conditions of employment for Australian Public Service Staff and as appropriate, for other employees of the commonwealth government: conducts related discussions and negotiations with departments, authorities and staff organisations: handles industrial situations and provides industrial information to departments and authorities; represents the Board, and by arrangements with authorities helps in proceedings before industrial tribunals: liaises generally with departments, particularly the Department of Industrial Relations authorities, staff organisations and other bodies on industrial relations matters affecting employees of the Commonwealth Government employment, represents the Board on the coordination committee. (4) *Planning, Legislation and Projects Division* conducts research into policies of relevance to the Board's role and public administration generally, provides library, general information and secretariat services to the Board's Office including preparation of the Board's annual report and coordination of the other Board publications: oversees and maintains statistical services for the

Board's Office: provides Ministerial and Parliamentary liaison functions for the Board's Office: coordinates preparation of legislation for which the Board is responsible: advises, as appropriate, on administrative implications of other legislation: develops and implements the service-wide personnel and establishment information system (Mandata) and other ADP based systems serving the Board's Office. (5) *Recruitment and Staff Development Division* develops and implements policies relating to recruitment, entry standards, staff movements, and redeployment of surplus staff: assists the chairman in his role of adviser to the government on senior public service and full-time civilian statutory appointments: coordinates the recruitment activities of the APS, and conducts related manpower studies: develops and implements policies relating to staff development, equal employment opportunity and personnel practices.

In the set-up which is envisaged there can be three or four major divisions, further sub-divided into a number of sub-divisions. A tentative distribution plan can be somewhat as follows.

DIVISION A: ADMINISTRATIVE CHANGE

Section 1. *Selection Management*

Management of posts for the constitutional and administrative organisations and preparation of organisation chart, approved post chart, etc.

Maintenance of up-to-date record of posts.

Creation of special posts in accordance with the existing procedure.

Change of post, raising the status and determination of service conditions.

Section 2. *Selection Classification*

To conduct study for suitable changes in the classification of groups.

Determination of technical posts and officials in accordance with the position classification scheme.

To determine the minimum academic qualifications for the groups, abolition and creation of groups.

Preparation of manual, statistical record and evaluation criteria.

DIRECTORATE OF PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT ORGANIZATION CHART

PERMANENT
SECRETARY/DIRECTOR

DEPUTY SECRETARY
MANAGEMENT CONSULTANCY
SERVICES

DEPUTY SECRETARY
MANPOWER
DEVELOPMENT

DEPUTY SECRETARY
PERSONNEL
ADMINISTRATION

US
STATUTORY
BOARDS

1 C M A

3 S M A

US
GOVERNMENT
MINISTRIES/DEPART.

3 C M A

9 S M A

US
GOVERNMENT
MINISTRIES/DEPART.

3 C M A

9 S M A

SYSTEMS
ANALYST

US
STAFF
DEVELOPMENT

6 C S D O
3 M C

15 S D O

US
TRAINING
ADMINISTRATION

2 S A S

6 A S

US
PERSONNEL
ADMINISTRATION

4 C P O

5 S P O

US
PENSIONS
ADMINISTRATION

1 C P O

2 S P O

US
FINANCE &
ESTABLISHMENT

1 S A S

REGISTRY
AND
OFFICE SERVICES

ACCOUN

Section 3. Organisation Selection

To formulate the uniform working procedure much more effective.

To implement the approved   working procedure and to publish it in the form of a manual.

To conduct study and suggest measures making the organisations of the government and their working procedure much more effective.

To conduct the study on the problems of administration; submit the report to the concerned agency and to implement the approved recommendations.

DIVISION B: PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT

This division will be responsible for the formulation and interpretation of personnel policies, representing government and negotiation with staff associations. It will also review and research on the civil service rules, regulations and procedures and updating them as well as formulation and interpretation of pensions policies.

Section 1: Personnel Administration

Development and maintenance of personnel policies, standards, rules and procedures, governing conditions and terms of service.

Advising ministries/departments on recruitment, appointment, appointment and promotion procedures.

To make necessary action for the promotion of the members of the administrative service, administration of officials of the reserve post.

To maintain the up-to-date records of the members of the administrative service and procurement of records of the members of the administrative service from the concerned agency, preparation of the minutes of the promotion board.

To prepare the list of eligible candidates for promotion and calculate their numbers for submission to the promotion board.

To deal with matters relating to the appointment, transfer; career development   reward and punishment, dismissal,

gratuity and pension of the members of the administrative service.

To start negotiation machineries and liaison with staff associations.

Work related to the public service commission.

Section 2: Procedural Matters

To take necessary action for the amendment of the Civil Service Act and regulations.

To render advice to the ministries and departments on matters relating to the civil service rules and regulations.

Maintenance of important decisions and arrangements for the publication of manual.

To conduct studies for making suitable changes in the existing administrative regulations and implement the approved recommendations.

Section 3: Pensions

Reviewing and updating of pensions policies, regulations and their interpretations in relation to the Pensions Act.

Providing guidance to ministries and departments on pension matters.

Advising ministries on administration of gratuities, marriage, death, etc.

DIVISION C: EDUCATION AND TRAINING

The division will be responsible for formulation and implementation of training policies, manpower forecasting and planning and development and maintenance of training standards.

Section 1: Training and Research

To organise the pre-service and in-service training programme for officers.

To formulate the training policy and programme and determine the training technique and courses of study.

Publication of reading materials and journal of public administration.

To conduct or arrange for the evaluation of training programme.

Coordination of gazetted training programmes with other national and international agencies.

Participation in conferences end seminars relating to staff development.

Section 2: *Professional Training*

Organise the training programme for the non-gazetted officers including military and police officer on administrative matters.

To formulate the plan, programme and procedure for the training.

To conduct the examination for the post of typist and to organise the training for the typists.

Development of standardised interviewing and selection techniques for trainees.

To organise the field teams for organising training programmes for the district level officials.

To evaluate/or arrange for the evaluation of the training programme.

Section 3: *Documentation*

To manage for the preservation and preparation of important documents of the government.

To make arrangements for taking micro-films of the important documents.

Section 4: *Finance and Establishment*

To deal with the matters related to the personnel administration and functions of the staff of the central personnel agency.

The maintenance and allocation of vehicles, office equipment and supplies.

To deal with the matters relating to the budget and financial activities, internal and final audit of the accounts of the agency.

Procurement, storage and distribution of office equipments and materials.

Repair and maintenance of office equipments, management of

central filing system, and matters related to the central service and despatch.

Planning, progress monitoring and arrangement for the review room.

Arrangements for press release and meeting press.

DIVISION D: MANAGEMENT CONSULTANCY SERVICES

This division will advise ministries, and departments on modern management techniques with regard to planning, organisation, staffing, coordination and introduction of latest techniques.

Section 1: Organisational Analysis

Organisation structure.

Interdepartmental relations.

External environment of the organisation.

Lines of command and communication.

Development of personnel inventory.

Skills inventory.

Section 2: Staff Utilisation

Establishment requirements.

Schemes of service.

Position review.

Job evaluation and grading.

Job analysis, descriptions and specifications.

Skills analysis.

Job enrichment programmes.

Section 3: Operations Analysis

Development of management information systems.

Systems and procedures.

Design and use of forms.

Design of communication channels.

Records management.

Work study and work simplification.

It should have responsibility for developing and disseminating techniques of financial analysis and systems of financial

control. On the basis of these general principles, working procedures can be worked out but arrangements should be such that the clearest possible distinction exists between the functions and responsibilities of each of the departments or agencies.

OPERATIONAL PROCEDURES

To respond to the changes both in the increased volume in the service as well as the required changes in the modern management techniques, it will be necessary to secure closer cooperation between the civil service and the parastatal organisations as far as development of human resources and organisational plans are concerned. The principle role of the central personnel agency is to provide service, advice, policy guidelines and assistance to the ministries to achieve maximum utilisation of available resources allocated to them. The following general procedural guidelines may be useful:

(a) Work in every division should initially be planned, time scheduled and appropriately distributed;

(b) Regular operational and consultative meetings should be held to enhance team spirit, harmony, cooperation, exchange of ideas and effective work relationship;

(c) Every division must produce an annual performance report, pointing out the shortfalls if any;

(d) A detailed schedule of duties for the staff must be prepared and strategy adhered to;

(e) All proposals and schemes specially those which have long range repercussions must be discussed before they are finalised.

CONSTRAINTS

All administrative agencies are to be conceived in terms of human dignity and worth. Investing man with human dignity in the slowly developing societies poses immense challenges— their low level of technology, inadequate resources and long periods of neglect, structural improvements by strengthening the democratic base of recruitment practices, openness in administration, adequate information systems, consensus on national

goals and objectives have to be ensured.

In carrying out various functions, the central personnel agency should not act in a vacuum. It must take into account the commitments of the government as a whole, especially on the financial side as well as the number of staff in the civil service. Various schemes formulated by it must also take cognisance of any government policy towards occupational pension schemes and other welfare measures, etc. Normally it has been observed that departments exist to forward their own programmes and the policies of their minister and often the long term perspectives or projections of central personnel agency come into conflict. The close cooperation and regular links have to be emphasised and there must be occasional meetings of the senior level officers to exchange views and information.[20] Another sensitive area is the relationship with employee's associations. So far as possible, all management decisions should be taken after taking the various staff associations into confidence. Agreements acceptable to both sides are usually reached, but the processes of consultation frequently occupy much time. Close relations should also be maintained with the trade unions and other organisations so that there is less resistance to change.

A doubt may be raised about how can the sound merit system be strengthened by reorganising the public service commissions and at the same time the managerial role of the ministries or central personnel agency be made effective. It is true that in certain cases, conflicts may arise in the initial years but all these objectives are not mutually inconsistent. There is nothing which stops the government to strengthen public service commissions by a fundamental change in its role. The separate ministries can have greater control over performance by changing the methods and techniques. Central personnel agency when created can give stronger leadership both through changes in its functions and other alternative arrangements. The public service commissions provide a check on the

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[20]Rafiq Inayat, "The Civil Service Academy" *in* Inayatullah (Ed.), *Bureaucracy and Development in Pakistan*, Pakistan, Peshawar Academy for Rural Development, 1963. Joseph L. Sultan (Ed.), *Problems of Politics and Administration in Thailand*, Bloomington, Indiana University Press, 1952. Albina M. Dans, "The Philippine Civil Service: Structure and Policies". Manila, College of Public Administration, 1977 (Mimeo).

democratic recklessness of the political governments in controlling the civil service. Whereas the control may remain with the political executive it is necessary to ensure that political and personal influences do not operate in the control and administration of civil service. One of the essential conditions for the success of democracy is to extend the sphere of public authority without extending the sphere of political decision. Like the judiciary, the public service commissions have been accorded a non-political and independent status, and this status should be strengthened. It is often mentioned that every institution which has been in existence for some time has a history behind it. The nature and magnitude of problems, on the other hand change with time and many organisations, like living organism, if not properly cared have an inherent tendency to fossilise. Public service commissions were established apart from many other factors to secure and uphold merit system. With the best of intentions and reorganisations, public service commissions have no doubt been successful in regulating recruitment policies and assuring reasonable security of tenure to civil servants. However, the merit system does not stop there because merit system does not merely mean the exclusion of favouritism, it also positively means securing persons of superior calibre and developing them. The latter function has not engaged the attention of the commissions to a great extent. There can be some sensitivity regarding the retention of the public service commissions specially when they have performed some useful role at a time when patronage system was threatening the very concept of the administrative efficiency. Moreover in many countries, a number of reforms have been introduced in the recruitment procedures and agencies. Either they can continue to perform the present functions and slowly the functions are taken over by the central personnel agency or else they can act as 'watch dog' carrying certain inspectional, investigatory, policy-review, quasi-judicial and reporting authority. The staff should be limited which should look after examining and recruiting processes as well as other personnel operations, with power to influence changes but not to give orders. For administrative support and housekeeping functions, they could become a part of the central personnel agency. The actual direction and operation of the total personnel programme, including recruitment and

examining would be with the central personnel agency. It is true that in the countries where public service commissions have been given constitutional status, it may not be possible to delimit their role but if they are allowed to retain their present role, position, powers and identity the advantages of central unified executive responsibility for personnel administration would be lost. Individual ministries would continue to have greater autonomy over assignment, duties, classification, incentives and discipline but without sacrificing high standards or true merit. The public service commissions would be in an advantageous position of calling attention to major problems or shortcomings without being bogged down to details.

Again, it is not easy to define functions of central personnel agencies in clear out terms. In Australia, Public Service Board is required to walk a very difficult path between that group of functions for which it requires an almost judicial degree of autonomy (*i.e.*, all the old antipatronage and merit protection functions in examining, recruitment, determination, of appeals, etc.), and that other group of functions for which autonomy from government of the day is clearly impossible (*i.e.*, determination of conditions of service, control of establishments and implementation of government—imposed staff ceiling policies).

STAFFING

Sound organisational structures and excellent locational advantages cannot match a well-recruited and efficient staffing pattern. The staff selected to man different personnel units should be well equipped to perform their duties. Personnel management has become a specialised branch with the result that it is possible to have specialists in different aspects of personnel administration. Ultimately it should be possible to develop a separate cadre of personnel specialists, grooming them for higher positions. Academic attainments can be useful but not a replacement for practical experience in actual work situations. Interchange of personnel with other departments or universities or institutes should be encouraged. While searching for talent, effort should be made to attract the best men. Other departments should also be prepared to release some of their

good officers for a period of service in this agency. In the initial years, the work will be most challenging and creative, therefore, it would be necessary to include specialists who will be able to bring an intimate knowledge and experience to bear on the day to day work. All the occupational groups should be well represented so that there are specialists to handle particular specific problems with direct knowledge and professional management expertise. The setting up of the central personnel agency cannot be regarded as a take over by central management of responsibilities that properly belong to the other departments. Therefore, the effort has to be towards more and more delegation to individual departments the maximum authority compatible with the requirements of the service as a whole. The central personnel agency should be represented on all the departmental boards so that there is coordination and in case of differences of opinion, the chief executive should intervene. Wherever treasury or ministry of finance is performing establishment functions, the demarcation of functions should be clearcut. The treasury or the ministry of finance should increasingly concern itself with pay and financial matters.

The success of sound personnel policies ultimately hinges on the attitude of the people, both within and outside the service. Government must be mindful of the views held by different sections of the public and central personnel agency has to play a positive role in projecting a favourable image of the government employment. A progressive personnel agency will always be sensitive to public relations and should not solely be regarded as the responsibility of a public relations man. The employees who come into daily contact with the people are in a way the 'public relations ambassadors' of the agency. The agency must, therefore, ascertain the views and attitudes of the people from time to time, disseminate information about the civil service and arrange training programmes, etc., with the public relations orientation.[21]

In an international project, recently the experts gave a grim warning of what lies ahead in the

[21]Bernard Schaffer, *Administrative Training and Development: A Comparative Study of East Africa, Zambia, Pakistan and India*, New York, Praeger, 1974, pp. 275-314. Frank Stacey, *British Government 1966-1975: Years of Reforms*, London, Oxford University Press, 1975. *Britain 1979*, An Official Handbook prepared by the Central Office of Information, London.

third millennium. South Asia and Africa, South of the Sahara will remain poor. The number of people in India living in absolute poverty will probably still be 300 million by the end of the century. The Report predicts: (a) Food demand will not reach global physical limits in the year 2000, but China would have to double and some developing countries treble grain production to meet domestic needs; (b) Transition from an oil-based energy system to other sources will take at least half a century, that in the long run energy resources should be sufficient; (c) Further energy systems may be mainly based on nuclear and on solar energy, coal and other fossil fuels will provide a stop gap.[22] Thus, the whole gamut of human activity from energy policies to life-styles, environmental problems, sources of conflict, food and raw material stocks, scientific progress and population growth would pose serious challenges to administrative systems in all the developed and developing countries. It is impossible to predict the future effectiveness of specialised management improvement units as continuing, permanent bodies for generating and implementing reforms within the structure of the normal administrative machinery. The problems would require an interdisciplinary and multifunctional approach which can easily be combined at the level of central personnel agency.[23] Definite role has been assigned to administration in developing countries for the introduction of certain changes as a precondition for the establishment of the new international economic order.[24] Measures suggested by the programme of Action include, inter alia, exploitation and marketing of natural

[22]Facing the Future: Mastering the Probable and Managing the Unpredictable. Report of the Inter-futures Project of the Organisation and Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD), 1979.

[23]Gregory D. Foster, "The 1978 Civil Service Reforms Act: Postmortem or Rebirth," Public Administration Review, No. 1, 1979, pp. 78-85 Charles Press and Alan Arian (Ed), Empathy and Ideology: Aspects of Administrative Innovation, Chicago, Rand, 1966, pp. 72-107.

[24]Leonard Binder, Iran: Political Development in a Changing Society, erkeley, University of California Press, 1962. Thomas C. Nowak, "The Philippines before Martial Law: A Study in Politics and Administration", American Political Science Review, 71 Nos. 1977, pp. 522-39. Edwin Dowdy, Japanese Bureaucracy, Its Development and Modernization, Melbourne Cheshire, 1973. Herbert Jacob, German Administration since Bismarek, New Haven, Yale University Press, 1963,

resources; processing of raw materials in the producer developing countries; arresting desertification, setting up of new industrial capacities; vocational training, transfer of technology; research, creation of suitable indigeneous technology.[25] The challenge for administration lies precisely in thinking out how can the countries make maximum use of the opportunities offered by their position in world economic flows while maximizing their negative effects, how to play an active role in the design of the rules of the game governing trade and financial flows, instead of being relatively passive participants, and how to reconcile the economic policy requirements needed to attain these objectives with those required to achieve the growth and redistribution targets.[26] For the new order which is emerging, the objectives, scope, articulation and execution of public policies has to take note of greater human fulfilment in life, more creativity in work and leisure, a more attractive and less polluted environment, greater conservation of resources, more citizen participation in decision making and firmer community control over future directions.[27] This will prove to be no easy task as there are indications that governments are caught in a squeeze, as threats of inflation, unemployment and low rates of economic growth increase. The system has to achieve a true integration of the aesthetic, social, political, economic and humanistic components of the development process.[28] In developing countries, developmental possibilities in terms of

[25]"The Programmes of Action on the Establishment of a New International Economic Order", *U.N. General Assembly Resolution* 3202.S-VI, 1978. Susan George, *Feeding the Few: Corporate Control of Food*, Washington Institute of Policy Studies, 1979.

[26]Reinhard Bendix, "Preconditions of Development: A Comparsion of Japan and Germany", *Nation-Building and Citizenship*, New York, John Wiley, 1964. Daniel Bell, *The Coming of Post-Industrial Society: A Venture in Social Forecasting*, New York, Basic Books, 1973. Robert M. Price, *Society and Bureaucracy in Contemporary Ghana*, Berkeley, California Press, 1975.

[27]I.L. Mangham, *Interactions and Interventions in Organizations*, John Wiley, New York, 1978. Robert M. Price, *Society and Bureaucracy in Contemporary Ghana*, Berkeley, Univesity of California Press, 1975. Jeanne Siwek-Pouydesseau, "French Ministerial Staffs", in Mattei Dogan (Ed.), *The Mandarins of Western Europe*, 'New York' 1975, pp. 208-9.

[28]Randall B. Ripley and Grance A. Franklin (Ed.), *Policy-Making in the Federal Executive Branch*, New York, The Free Press, 1975, pp. 1-20.

resource allocation are not fully optimised. A further complica-
tion arises from the fact that such technology is generated, by
and large, abroad mainly by transnational corporations. Heavy
costs are borne by third world countries in terms of prices
paid for technology, conditions under which technology is
transferred and in terms of absorbing foreign technology.[29]
Plans are underway to stress the need for institutional
interaction between public and private sectors, so that there is
an effective link between the national production systems and
national policy makers. Effort is no doubt, made at stimulat-
ing indigenous technological development and in the adaptation
and assimilation of foreign technology to suit local conditions.
The spread of technology has many side effects and only
economic interpretation of technology by policy makers has
dangers of its own. The seductive power of the pattern of
industrial production and its growing output of non-essential
goods, best illustrated by the tremendous increase in the
armaments business pose distortions to economy. These patterns
are now rapidly spreading in the third world and becoming a
very powerful factor for further distortion of the world's pro-
ductive systems.[30] This trend needs to be taken serious note of.

To conclude, to have an effective central personnel agency,
in the context of the above mentioned challanges personnel cad-
res have to be built up of specially selected, adequately trained
persons with aptitude for personnel work. Not much care is
exercised in the initial years for proper staffing and there is a
tendency to fill the key positions with persons who, more by
accident than by design, happen to be acquainted with some
kind of personnel job. This creates vested interests and breeds
inertia, the price for which is paid for many decades by society.

[29]David C. Cole and P.N. Lyman, *Korean Development: The Interplay of
Politics and Economics*, Cambridge, Harvard University Press, 1971. James
Alan Bill, *The Politics of Iran: Groups, Class and Modernization*, Colum-
bus, Merrill, 1972. W.D. Reeves. *The Republic of Korea. A Political and
Economic Study*, London, Oxford University Press, 1963.

[30]Special Number *Development Dialogue*, on "Towards Another Deve-
lopment in Science and Technology", 1979, Vol. I, pp. 13-32. The mate-
rial presented is based on the proceedings of the 1978 Dag Hammarskjold
Seminar on "The Development of Third World Autonomous Capacity in
and Technology" which formed part of a series of Seminars sponsored by
the Foundation.

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